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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

PERCEIVED AND EXPECTED BEHAVIOR OF COACHES AS ASSESSED BY ATHLETES

By

(C) Paula F. M. Scholten

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS

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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled PERCEIVED AND EXPECTED BEHAVIOR OF COACHES AS ASSESSED BY ATHLETES submitted by Paula Scholten, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts.

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Date July 26, 1978.....

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated in memory of my wonderful parents.

ABSTRACT

The study investigated five behavioral leadership dimensions of coaches in relation to the training behavior, autocratic behavior, democratic behavior, social support behavior and rewarding behavior as assessed by athletes. Specifically, athletes were asked to indicate how they prefer coaches to act and how they perceive their coach as acting by completing the Leadership in Sports Questionnaire. In addition, the athletes completed a seven point satisfaction scale referring to the satisfaction the athletes had with the leadership provided by their coaches. The subjects of the study were ninety-nine female basketball players and ten basketball coaches affiliated with the Canadian Intercollegiate Athletic Union.

By subtracting the perceived scores on the Leadership in Sports Questionnaire from the expected scores, it was possible to obtain discrepancy scores. To determine if the discrepancy scores were significant, five individual t-tests at the .05 level of significance were used relating to the five specific leadership dimensions. To determine if there was a relationship between, (1) the discrepancy scores and (2) the satisfaction the athletes had with the behaviors of coaches on each leadership dimension, five Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficients were employed at the .05 level of significance.

The investigation revealed significant results between the perceived and expected behavior of coaches as assessed by athletes. In particular,

the results indicated that athletes observed their coaches as exhibiting less training behavior, democratic behavior, social support behavior and rewarding behavior than expected. The perceptions the athletes had concerning autocratic behavior of coaches, however, was greater than expected.

Additionally, the results exemplified that there were significant relationships between discrepancy scores and the satisfaction of athletes with the leadership provided by coaches. It was found that as the discrepancy scores between perceived and expected training behavior, democratic behavior, social support behavior and rewarding behavior of coaches increased, the satisfaction of the athletes decreased with the leadership provided by coaches. Conversely, the greater the discrepancy score in the autocratic behavior of coaches, the more satisfied the athletes were with the leadership of coaches.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Leadership is the most thoroughly researched area in the behavioral sciences (Oldham, 1976). For most athletic teams, coaches are the appointed leaders and as leaders they are held responsible for the performance of the team. In spite of the extensive discussions and innumerable articles written about leadership, the procedures or methods of becoming a successful coach are obscure. As stated by Singer, "It is difficult to understand what it takes to be a champion athlete, and the same exists in attempting to determine how a person becomes a successful coach" (1972: 35). Brent Rushall stated: "It would appear that the most significant factor for making a coach successful is the athletes in the group" (1975: 79). If Rushall's statement is to be accepted, it would seem apparent that coaches should be made aware of how athletes perceive and expect coaches to act since a person in any leadership position is confronted with several sets of demands and expectations (Cratty, 1973). Cartwright and Zander (1962) have expressed the opinion that regardless of the type of organization in which leaders find themselves, they must meet to some degree the expectations of the group and if this is not done, the leaders will lose the following of subordinates due to a decrease in satisfaction.

Numerous studies (Fast, 1964; Patrick, 1973; Hemphill, 1957;

Halpin, 1957) dealing with groups in business, education, industry and government have been analyzed concerning perceptions of subordinates in relation to their superiors. There is a paucity of studies of this nature, however, concerning the coach and athlete with the exception of those studies done by Percival (1976) and Danielson et al. (1975) which investigated the perception of athletes regarding the leadership behaviors of their coaches. Furthermore, the only study to date concerning leadership expectations of coaches by athletes was completed recently by Chelladurai and Saleh (1978) in an article entitled "Preferred Leadership in Sports".

On the basis of this preliminary information, the author will investigate the difference between perceived and expected behavior of coaches as viewed by athletes and the degree of satisfaction experienced by the athletes toward the leadership provided by their coaches.

Justification of the Study

It is a general consensus in the field of athletics that success or failure of teams involved in sports depend in part on the leadership provided by coaches. Due to the nature of coaching, there is always a leader and a follower and based upon this premise it is inevitable that interaction occurs between a coach and an athlete. Fielder has expressed that "leadership is a relationship" (1971: 128). Therefore, since a coach is in a leadership role, and since leadership consists of relationships between coaches and athletes, the coach should have

some understanding of how to fulfill the leadership role as anticipated by athletes. Fiedler remarked that:

> The leader must serve as a model, and therefore, embody or exemplify the group's norms and expectations and the leader who departs too frequently from the group's expectations will lose credibility and will be rejected (1971: 129).

According to McGregor (1960) and Singer (1972) there are three conceivable ways by which athletes could perceive and evaluate the effectiveness of coaches. The three approaches are as follows:

(1) Satisfaction of athletes as the primary criteria of leadership effectiveness, with task output being secondary.

(2) Production as the main criteria, with satisfaction of athletes as a by-product.

(3) Productivity and satisfaction of athletes being equally important.

It is difficult to conceive how some coaches can be effective when they disregard personal interaction between coaches and athletes. Widdop (1976) emphasized in her article, "Hey Coach! I'm a Person," the necessity of a coach to know athletes as individuals since athletes have individual needs and expectations. Furthermore, Patrick commented, "The confrontation point in group development usually arises when it is clear that the leader is not going to fulfill the expectation that most members had" (1973: 34).

Studies done in the educational field by Fast (1964), Guba and Bidwell (1955) found that the satisfaction teachers have with their job effectiveness and the leadership of the principals was related to how closely perception and expectation of behaviors held by principals and teachers coincide. Based on the findings of Fast, Guba and Bidwell, an analogy could be drawn relating to the anticipated and observed behaviors athletes have concerning coaches. First, the convergence of expectations and perceptions of athletes towards the leadership of coaches is accompanied by a high level of team satisfaction and secondly, the divergence of expectations and perceptions results in lower levels of satisfaction in athletes.

The degree of success attributed to coaches is often closely linked to the winning and losing records of their teams. Percival stated, however, that "Other than team productivity as measures of effectiveness, self-rating by coaches and players of the degree of coach effectiveness can be utilized" (1976: 2096).

The rating of athletes concerning the leadership of coaches should elucidate valuable information regarding the following: (1) athletes expected leadership role of coaches; (2) athletes perceived leadership role coaches and, (3) the satisfaction of athletes with the leadership provided by coaches. It is the opinion of the author that this information will assist coaches in re-evaluating their behavior and provide a basis for change if the need arises.

Statement of the Problem

> The teacher who becomes a coach has a very complex role to fill. The coach has to consider the teams' expectations of him. When students turn out for a sport they bring with them needs that they are hoping the group and the coach may be able to satisfy (Hallet, 1974: 20).

On the basis of this statement, it is evident that there is a need for coaches to communicate with team members. As the result of such interaction between coaches and athletes, coaches should have a better understanding of the expectations and perception of athletes regarding their leadership role.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is twofold:

(1) To determine whether there is a difference in the way athletes observe their coaches as behaving and the way athletes expect coaches to behave.

(2) To determine whether a relationship exists between satisfaction of athletes and the leadership provided by their coaches.

Limitations

Throughout the study the following limitations prevailed:

(1) Confounding variables such as illness or a discouraging week at practice could have affected the results given by the athletes at the time of questioning.

(2) Personal familiarity of the author with the players and coach of one team may have affected the evaluations of the athletes of that particular team.

(3) There may have been a tendency for athletes to evaluate in a manner that is socially desirable (Anastasi, 1976).

(4) There may have been a tendency for athletes to evaluate their coaches according to the athletes own value system and personality (Singer, 1972).

(5) The evaluations of athletes may have been subjected to the halo effect which influences their rating by a single favorable or unfavorable trait possessed by coaches (Anastasi, 1976).

(6) There may have been a possiblity for athletes to evaluate in the middle of the scale to avoid extreme positions, thus, creating error of central tendency (Anastasi, 1976).

(7) The complexity of the phenomenon of leadership in the different fields of business, industry and social work made it difficult to build a conceptual framework (Gibb, 1969; Stogdill, 1974; Hanson, 1973).

Delimitations

The delimitations of this study are as follows:

(1) Ten intercollegiate female basketball teams with their respective coaches affiliated with the Canadian Intercollegiate Athletic Union (CIAU) were studied.

(2) The study included differences in the sex of the coaches (six females and four males).

(3) Chelladurai's Leadership in Sports Questionnaire in its primary stage of development to evaluate the leadership of coaches was utilized.

Definitions

The definitions of the five behavioral leadership dimensions used in this thesis are defined by Chelladurai (1978) in the following way:

Training Behavior: "Behavior aimed at improving the performance level of the athletes by emphasizing and facilitating hard and strenuous training, clarifying the relationships among the members" (Chelladurai, 1978).

Autocratic Behavior: "Tendency of the coach to set himself (herself) apart from the athletes, and to make all decisions by himself" (Chelladurai, 1978).

Democratic Behavior: "Behavior of the coach which allow greater participation by the athletes in deciding on group goals, practice methods, and game tactics and strategies" (Chelladurai, 1978).

Social Support Behavior: "Behavior of the coach indicating his (her) concern for individual athletes and their welfare, and for positive group atmosphere" (Chelladurai, 1978).

Rewarding Behavior: "Behavior of the coach which provide reinforcement for an athlete by recognizing and regarding good performance" (Chelladurai, 1978).

Other terms used in this study are defined as follows:

Leader: the coach who is formally designated to lead athletes participating in the sport of basketball (Lawless, 1972).

Role Behavior: refers to how a coach actually behaves.

Role Conflict: refers to that situation in which the coach confronts competing or conflicting expectations concerning his leadership role.

Leader Behavior: behavior of the coaches referring to their training behavior, autocratic behavior, democratic behavior, social support behavior and rewarding behavior as measured through the scores in the Leadership in Sports Questionnaire.

Satisfaction: the relationship between expected and perceived dimensions of leadership of coaches as evaluated by athletes.

Discrepancy Index: the difference between the expected and actual behavior of coaches as assessed by the athletes.

Team Effectiveness: the degree of the satisfaction of athletes as measured by the discrepancy index.

Role: the behavioral standards expected of coaches by various individuals or groups.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Definitions

"There are almost as many definitions of leaderships as there are leadership theories - and there are almost as many theories of leadership as there are psychologists working in the field " (Fielder, 1971: 126). A few definitions are reproduced to demonstrate how various writers identify the terms leadership and leader.

> Leadership is the exercise of authority and the making of decisions (Dubin, 1950: 325).
>
> Leadership is the initiation of acts that result in a consistent pattern of group interaction directed toward the solution of mutual problems (Hemphill, 1957: 74).
>
> The leader is the person who creates the most effective change in group performance (Cattell, 1951: 161).
>
> The leader is one who succeeds in getting others to follow him (Crowley, 1928: 146).
>
> Leadership is the process of influencing group activities toward goal setting and goal achievement (Stogdill, 1948: 39).

Some writers have distinguished between leader and headman by defining the headman as someone who directs the group by virtue of his position alone, while a leader directs the group by virtue of the willing cooperation of the members (Gibb, 1969). Others have differentiated between emergent and formal leaders. The formal leader is appointed or explicitly

elected. The informal or emergent leader is the person with the most influence, regardless of his formal position in the group.

In a team situation at a university, the leader, who is the coach in this particular situation, is hired as a member of the university staff. Therefore, the definition of leader chosen for this study was borrowed from Lawless and is defined as "the person formally designated to lead the group " (1972: 109). As opposed to Dubin (1950), Hemphill (1957), Cattell (1951), Crowley (1928), and Stogdill (1948), Lawless defined a leader as being free from any value judgement or effectiveness of the particular leader. It is apparent that coaches may or may not have influence upon their athletes; may or may not exercise authority; may or may not initiate acts that result in consistent pattern of team interaction; may or may not create the most effective change in team performance; may or may not succeed in getting the team members to follow them; and may or may not influence team activity towards a goal. To reveal the value judgement of coaches, however, the author has reverted to the behaviors of coaches as rated by their athletes on various leadership dimensions.

Developmental Theories in Leadership

Trait Theory

When an outstanding performance is given by a team in a manner vastly superior to others, Rushall (1975) postulated that one common cause that is often considered is the personality traits of coaches.

In one of the first major descriptions of personalities of coaches,

Ogilvie and Tutko (1966) found differences in sixty-four coaches involved in basketball, track and field, football and baseball in comparison to the normal population in a number of positive and negative ways. Among the positive traits reflected by coaches, the following were described: (1) success driven with a need to be on top; (2) orderly, well organized, planned ahead; (3) well developed conscience; (4) emotionally stable under stress; (5) high leadership ability; (6) high psychological endurance; (7) mature in facing reality; and (8) expresses natural aggressive tendencies freely. Some negative traits described by Ogilvie and Tutko were: (1) dominance prone; (2) little interest in the dependency needs of others; (4) inability to give emotional support to others; and (4) inflexibility in utilizing new learning and teaching techniques.

In summary, people with positive leadership traits tend to be mature, well-organized, aggressive and stable. People exhibiting negative traits tend to be impersonal, inflexible and domineering.

Early research placed an emphasis on identifying the trait characteristics of effective leaders. The trait theory of leadership argues that leader behavior is uniquely the result of the individual qualities of the leader. Andrews has defined it as follows: "The trait theory of leadership maintains that leadership is a function of the physical, intellectual, or personality traits of the leaders" (1958: 16).

At the beginning of World War I, the American Psychological Association appointed a committee of eminent psychologists to assist the United States Army in the screening and selecting of military personnel.

Among the notable achievements of the committee was the development of the Army Alpha Test of Intelligence; the Woodworth Wells Test of Personality; the classification of military specialties; and an officer qualifications rating scale. The demonstrated usefulness of these methods in the military settings suggested that they might also be applied in the industrial situation. The personnel testing movement also gave rise to research on leadership. It was hypothesized that leadership qualities could be acquired by individuals who are most fortunately endowed with various aspects of physique, intelligence and personality. Nutting (1923) was one of the first to publish empirical results on the characteristics of leaders and was followed by Jenkins (1947), Stogdill (1948), Mann (1959), and Jacobs (1970). A wide variety of traits classified as physical, social, background, intelligence and ability, personality, social and task orientation was found to differentiate leaders from followers (Stogdill, 1974). However, all of the above reviewers were in agreement that the use of tests for measuring the various traits has not proved to be very useful for the selection of leaders.

Gouldner pointed out five inadequacies of the trait-approach to leadership:

(1) the traits are not listed in order of importance;

(2) the traits in a single list are often not mutually exclusive; for example, tact, judgement and common sense;

(3) the traits necessary to achieve a leadership role are not separated from the ones necessary to provide leader behavior;

(4) the traits are described but no mention is made as to how one is able to develop them;

(5) the basis of the theory that personality is composed of a number of traits involves certain debatable assumptions regarding the nature of personality (1950: 23-24).

In direct relation to coaching, it appears that some coaches may be extroverted as leaders in the coaching situation, while in their personal social surroundings the coaches may lean toward introversion. Similarly, male or female athletes may display leadership qualities while participating in a particular sport in a particular place, but in a different environment, the same athletes may be submissive, or otherwise ineffective.

It appears likely that different situations attract different types of personality and therefore, Ogilvie's and Tutko's description of positive or negative leaders need not be the case in all situations. As Stogdill concluded in his studies of the personal factors associated with leadership, "the qualities, characteristics, and skills required in a leader are determined to a large extent by the demand of the situation in which he is to function as a leader " (1948: 45).

Situationist Theory

Stogdill's conclusion leads to the situationist theory which maintains that there are no universal qualities associated with leadership, but rather, leadership behavior results from the demands of the situation. Hemphill who did basic research in this area, based his study on the assumption that, "what an individual actually does when acting as a leader is in large part dependent upon the characteristics of the situation in which he functions " (1949: 205).

From this point of view the success of a person as a leader depends upon the relation between behaviors demanded by the situation (in this case the athletes and administration) and the leader's (coach's) actual behavior. This theory of leadership, therefore, takes into consideration the group situation, the behavior of the leader, and the evaluation of the congruence between the leader's behavior and the behaviors demanded by the situation. As stated by Hemphill, the theory is "rooted in concrete behavior rather than abstract constructs " (1949: 206).

Stogdill supports Hemphill when he cogently states the problem.

> It is not especially difficult to find persons who are leaders. It is quite another thing to place people in different situations where they will function as leaders. Thus, any adequate analysis of leadership involves not only a study of the leaders but also of the situation in which the leadership acts occur (1948: 49).

Hemphill attempted to describe group situations in terms of specific characteristics. These group dimensions were then examined in the light of their usefulness as a guide to understanding those behaviors which are required of successful leaders in varying situations. Fifteen descriptive characteristics of groups such as size, viscidity, homogeneity, flexibility, stability, and autonomy were used in his research. He discovered that there were "significant relations between factors in the group and the behavior of the leader" (1949: 210).

Andrews has pointed out that while the situationist theory was supported by research, it was a negative approach to the problem of leadership because it was "impossible to make generalizations about things which do not have common elements" (1958: 17).

Hemphill (1949), himself, suggested that the chief contribution of the study of the situationist theory was in furnishing additional background for further research in leadership.

Interactional Theories

Several recent theories have attempted to develop a model for the interaction of leader attributes and situational factors.

Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) recommend different leader behaviors ranging from the highly boss-centered to the highly subordinate-centered leadership style. Which pattern of leadership behavior the leader should choose depends in part on his value system, his confidence in subordinates, and his own inclinations. In part, however, it also depends on such situational factors as the values and traditions of the organization, the size of the work group, and the amount of employee participation required by the task. Stogdill and Coon (1957) see the group's history, composition and structure as determinants of leader behavior. Bass' (1960) theory attempts to relate leadership performance to the rewards and satisfaction provided by the leader member interaction and the task. Another theory that recognizes situational factors as well as leadership variables is Mann's Skill Mix Theory (1965). Mann postulates that there are four important skills. These are: human relations skills involved in working with people; technical skills required for performing and directing work activities of others; administrative skills for coordinating the work of the group, making job assignments, planning, and institutional skills required for relating the organization to its environment, developing appropriate policies and representing the group

or the organization to other agencies outside of the organization. Gibb (1969) postulated that the basic tenants of interactional theories consisted of four classes of variables to interact in leadership. These classes are, first, the personality of the leader; second, the follower's attitudes, needs and problems; third, the group in terms of the structure of interpersonal relations; and fourth, the situation's physical settings and the nature of the tasks. He also noted that it is not only the variables which interact to affect leadership but also the perception of leaders by themselves, the perception of leaders by others, and the shared perception by leaders and others of the group and situation.

Among other theories that explicitly state the type of leadership style or behavior required for specific situations are those proposed by Mersey and Blanchard (1970-1971) who stress the life cycle of the group as an important determinant of effective leadership behavior, and Kahn and Katz (1966) who see the leadership requirement as determined in part by the level of the organization at which the manager operates.

Almost all leadership theories at the present time recognize the importance of the particular situation in determining leadership performance. Attention will be given in the following section to Fiedler's Contingency Model (1967, 1971) which has had the greatest impact on leadership research in recent years, and the Path-Goal Theory of Leadership (House, 1971; House and Mitchell, 1974), both of which will be specifically related to sport.

Fiedler's Contingency Model

The foremost proponent of the interactional viewpoint on leadership is Fiedler (1967, 1971). His theory has had a wide application in military, industrial and problem-solving fields. His primary concern was to determine the type of leadership required in different situations. The problem basically consisted of classifying leadership situations and of matching a particular type of leadership to a particular situation.

By leadership style, Fiedler meant a "relatively consistent system of interacting with others who are in a subordinate position" (1971: 130). This definition, however, does not take into account the method used by leaders to attain goals and also, Fiedler realized that individuals with the same motivational pattern behave differently under different conditions, so he reverted to using a motivational system whereby he identified two motivational patterns: relation or person motivated and task or directive motivated. Both are measured by a simple bipolar adjective scale that asks the individual to think of everyone with whom he has ever worked and to think of everyone with whom he worked least well. This description which was referred to as his least preferred co-worker (LPC) is measured quantitively by marking sixteen to twenty items such as: friendly $\underset{8}{___}:\underset{7}{___}:\underset{6}{___}:\underset{5}{___}:\underset{4}{___}:\underset{3}{___}:\underset{2}{___}:\underset{1}{___}$ unfriendly.

In order to explain Fiedler's Theory in sports, the following extractions have been made by the author. The sum of the item scale constitutes the coaches' least preferred scores (LPS). Relatively high scores indicate that the leaders are relations-motivated persons while low LPS indicate task-motivated persons. In a sporting context, therefore, where coaches have high LPS it is assumed that they would be

friendly, considerate and concerned with interpersonal relations with their athletes while low LPS signifies that the emphasis of the coaches would be the concerned task.

As previously stated, coaches who have low LPS choose the completion of task as their primary goal, however, when they feel that the accomplishment of the task will present no problem, they will pursue the secondary goal, which appears to be good interpersonal relations with their athletes - in part because they believe that positive interpersonal relations are conducive to task accomplishment (Fiedler, 1971). Conversely, coaches who possess high LPS (relation-motivated individuals) who have secured their goal of relating to their athletes, will then seek the satisfaction of the secondary goal of task production.

Of concern is the question of whether relation-motivated coaches are more effective or less effective than task-motivated coaches. Fiedler proposes that the situation will dictate which type of leader is most effective in which type of situation. He defined the situation in terms of its favorableness taking into consideration three main facets.

(1) Leader-Member Relations: Do the athletes trust, like and/or respect their coach.

(2) Task Structure of the Group: Is the task structured or is it vague? Are the goals of the team clearly stated?

(3) Power of the Leader: Does the coach have legitimate authority over the group? Does the coach have the power to impose reward and/or punish?

Together, these three factors determine whether the group situation will be favorable or unfavorable for the coach, and it is assumed that the more favorable the situation,, the more effective the coaching will be. Thus, according to Fiedler, the job of coaches in trying to influence the athletes will be easiest when: (1) they have a positive and friendly relationship with the athletes; (2) when the group task is highly structured; and (3) when the position of the coach regarding expertise, ability to mediate rewards and punishment is the strongest.

Whether the task-motivated leader or relation-motivated leader will be more effective depends upon the difficulty of the job of the coaches. According to Fiedler, task-motivated coaches will perform best under either the most favorable conditions, or the least favorable conditions, that is, when their relationship with the group, the structure of the task and their power positions are either very good and easy, or, very poor and difficult. The permissive, considerate, relation-motivated coaches will perform best under moderate conditions, implicating when the favorableness of the situations are neither very easy nor very difficult.

The rationale for this theory in the sporting context appears to be in order:

(1) under extremely unfavorable, difficult conditions such as a highly ambiguous group task during a basketball game whereby the players movement is not highly structured since it is dependent upon the movement of their opponents, the team may be more task motivated and willing to overlook interpersonal conflicts for the time being in order to concentrate on the job at hand. Therefore, the task-motivated

style of leadership provides more of what the team needs under such unfavorable conditions while leaving interpersonal problems secondary.

(2) when coaches are confronted with moderately favorable or unfavorable conditions (for example, during a team practice) interpersonal friction may become more of a problem. When the team members are not threatened sufficiently or challenged by the task at hand, they may have no incentive to subdue their interpersonal problems or to look up to the coach. Thus, under these conditions, the relation-motivated coach can respond more directly to the immediate needs of the group.

(3) when the conditions are extremely favorable (a relatively simple group task, good leader-member relation and position of power) is present, a task-motivated coach is seen as more effective since the coach-athlete relation is already well established.

In summary, then, Fiedler's Model constitutes two types of leadership style (the relation-motivated and the task-motivated) for which the effectiveness is dependent upon the degree of favorableness in the situation. In order to apply Fiedler's Model effectively, it would be necessary for coaches to analyze situations and realize that every athlete, coach and situation differs and, hence, it would seem that the key point is flexibility in leadership style.

Path-Goal Theory of Leadership

According to the Path-Goal Theory of Leadership, (House, 1971) leaders are effective because of their impact on subordinates' motivation, ability to perform effectively and satisfactions. The theory is called the Path-Goal Theory of Leadership because its major concern is how the leader influences the subordinates' perceptions of their work, goals, personal goals and path to goal attainment. This theory suggests that the behavior of the leader is motivating or satisfying to the degree that the behavior increases subordinates' goal attainment and clarifies the paths to these goals.

The path goal theory has its roots in a more general motivational theory called expectancy theory (Mitchell et al., 1977: 255). Briefly, expectancy theory states that an individual's attitude (satisfaction with supervision or job satisfaction) or behavior (leader behavior or job effort) can be predicted from: (1) the degree to which the job, or behavior, is seen as leading to various outcomes (expectancy) and (2) the evaluation of the outcomes (valances). Thus, people are satisfied with their job if they think it leads to things that are highly valued, and they work hard if they believe that effort leads to things that are highly valued. As Nebeker states, "this type of theoretical rationale can be used to predict a variety of phenomena related to leadership, such as why leaders behave the way they do or how leader behavior influences subordinate motivation" (1974: 360).

This latter approach is the primary concern of the path-goal theory. The implication for leadership is that subordinates are motivated by leader behavior to the extent that the behavior of the leader influences

expectancies (goal paths) and valences (goal attractiveness).

The theory intends to explain the effects of four specific kinds of leader behavior on the following three attitudes or expectations of the subordinates: (1) the satisfaction of subordinates; (2) the subordinates acceptance of the leader, and (3) the expectations of subordinates that effort will result in effective performance and that effective performance is the path to rewards. The four kinds of leader behavior included in the theory as described by House, House and Dessler (1974) are as follows:

(1) Directive leadership, which is characterized by a leader who lets subordinates know what is expected of them, gives specific guidance as to what should be done and how it should be done, maintains definite standards of performance and asks that group members follow standard rules and regulations.

(2) Supportive leadership is characterized by a friendly and approachable leader who shows concern for the status, well being and needs of subordinates.

(3) Participative leadership is characterized by a leader who consults with subordinates before making a decision.

(4) Achievement-oriented leadership emphasizes excellence in performance and simultaneously displays confidence that subordinates will meet high standard of excellence.

General Proposition of Theory

The first proposition of the path-goal theory is that "leader behavior is acceptable and satisfying to subordinates to the extent that the subordinates see such behavior as either an immediate source of satisfaction or as instrumental to future satisfaction" (House and Mitchell, 1974: 83). The second proposition stated by House and Mitchell,

is that:

> Leader's behavior will be motivational, ie., increase effort to the extent that (1) such behavior makes satisfaction of subordinate's needs contingent on effective performance and (2) such behavior complements the environment of subordinates by providing the coaching, guidance, support and rewards necessary for effective performance (1974: 83).

These two propositions suggest that the motivational functions of the leader consist of increasing the number and kinds of personal payoffs to subordinates for work goal attainment, similar to the reward dimension of Challedurai (1978), and making paths to these payoffs easier to travel by "clarifying the paths, reducing road blocks and pitfalls and increasing the opportunity for personal satisfaction en route" (House, 1973: 143).

As reported by Fiedler (1973), the situational factors of leader-member relations, task and power effects the favorableness of the situation. However, House and Mitchell (1974) purport that there are two classes of situational variables to be identified as contingency factors. They are: (1) personal characteristics of subordinates and (2) the environmental pressures and demands which subordinates must cope with in order to accomplish work goals and to satisfy their needs.

With respect to the first class of contingency factors (the characteristics of subordinates) the path-goal theory asserts that leader behavior will be acceptable to subordinates to the extent that the subordinates see such behavior as an immediate source of satisfaction or as instrumental to future satisfaction. For example, subordinates with high needs for affiliation and social approval would see friendly,

considerate leader behavior as an immediate source of satisfaction. According to House and Mitchell, it could be predicted that subordinates would be satisfied with leader behavior that clarifies path-goal relationships and provides goal-oriented feedback. Subordinates with high needs for extrinsic rewards would be predicted to see leader directiveness or coaching behavior as instrumental to their satisfaction if such behavior helped them perform in such a manner as to gain recognition, promotion, security, or pay increase.

A second characteristic of subordinates which acts as a moderator is the perception subordinates have concerning their own ability relative to task demands. The higher the degree of perceived ability relative to task demands, the less the subordinates will view leader directiveness and coaching behavior as acceptable. If subordinates perceived their own ability to be high, such behavior is likely to have little positive effect on the motivation of the subordinate and will be perceived as excessively close control.

The acceptability of the behavior of the leader is thus determined in part by the characteristics of his subordinates. Leader behavior viewed as unacceptable, while possibly motivational, will usually result in dysfunctional consequence such as leader-follower conflict. An example of a circumstance in which leader behavior might be viewed as unacceptable and yet still be motivational would be one in which the leader has a high degree of punitive power over subordinates and the subordinates have no alternative but to comply with the demands of the leader in order to avoid punishment and stay on the team (House and Dessler, 1974).

With respect to the environment, the theory asserts that where path-goal relationships (subordinates' expectancies that effort leads to effective performance and effective performance leads to attainment of valued rewards) are apparent because of the routine of the task, attempts by the leader to clarify path-goal relationships will be redundant and will be seen by the subordinates as unnecessary, close control. Although such control may increase performance, it will also result in decreased satisfaction. Also, with respect to the environment, the theory asserts that the more dissatisfying the task the more the subordinates will resent behavior of the leader directed at increasing productivity or enforcing compliance to organizational rules and procedures. Finally, with respect to environmental variables, the theory asserts that leader behavior will be motivational to the extent that it helps subordinates cope with environmental uncertainties, threat from others, or sources of frustration. Such leader behavior is predicted to increase a subordinate's satisfaction with the job content and to be motivational to the extent that it increases the subordinate's perceived probability that his effort will lead to valued rewards (House and Mitchell, 1974).

The Path-Goal Theory has been tested in a limited number of studies which have generated considerable empirical support. A brief review of these studies follows.

Leader Directiveness

Leader directivness which is similar to the training dimension discussed earlier, has a positive correlation with satisfaction and expectancies of subordinates who are engaged in ambiguous tasks and has

a negative correlation with satisfaction and expectancies of subordinates engaged in clear tasks. (See Figure 1).

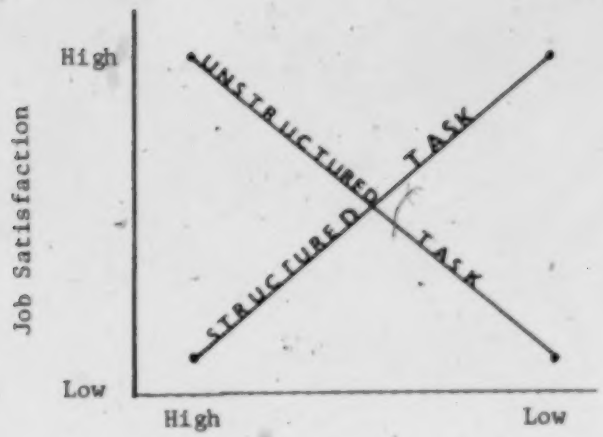

Figure 1. Hypothetical Relationship Between Directive Leadership and Subordinate Satisfaction with Task Structure as a Contingency Factor. (House and Mitchell, 1974: 94).

These findings were predicted by the theory and have been replicated in seven organizations. It was suggested that when task demands are ambiguous, or when organization procedures, rules and policies are not clear, a leader behaving in a directive manner complements the task and the organization by providing the necessary guidance and psychological structure for subordinates (Smetana, 1974). When task demands are clear to subordinates, however, leader directiveness is seen as more of a hindrance.

Supportive Leadership

The theory hypothesizes that supportive leadership, similar to the social support dimension discussed earlier, will have its most positive effect on subordinates who work on stressful, frustrating or dissatisfying tasks. This hypothesis has been tested in ten samples of employees (Tosi, 1970), and in only one of these studies was the hypothesis disconfirmed (Szalagyi and Sims, 1974). Despite some inconsistency in research on supportive leadership, the evidence is sufficiently positive to suggest that managers (coaches) should be alerted to the critical need for supportive leadership under conditions where tasks are dissatisfying, frustrating or stressful to subordinates (athletes), (House and Mitchell, 1974).

Achievement-Oriented Leadership

The theory hypothesizes that achievement-oriented leadership, similar to the training dimension discussed earlier, will cause subordinates to strive for a higher standard of performance and to have more confidence in their ability to meet challenging goals. A recent study by House, Valency and Van der Krabben (1974) provided a partial test of this hypothesis among white collar employees in service organizations. In the case of subordinates performing ambiguous, non-repetitive tasks, the higher the achievment orientation of the leader, the more the subordinates were confident that their efforts would pay off in effective performance. For subordinates performing moderately unambiguous repetitive tasks, there was no significant relationship between achievement-oriented leadership and subordinates expectancies that their effort

would lead to effective performance. This finding held true in four separate organizations.

House and Mitchell (1974) gave two plausible interpretations. First, people who select ambiguous, non-repetitive tasks may be different in personality from those who select a repetitive job and may, therefore, be more responsive to an achievement-oriented leader. A second explanation is that achievement orientation only affects expectancies in ambiguous situations because there is more flexibility in such tasks. Therefore, subordinates in such tasks are more likely to be able to change in response to such leadership style.

Participative Leadership

In theorizing about the effects of participative leadership which is similar to the democratic dimension discussed earlier, House and Mitchell (1974) felt that the relationship between a participative style and subordinate behavior is moderated by both the personality characteristics of the subordinate and the situational demands. Studies by Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) and Alport and Vroom (1956) have shown that subordinates who prefer autonomy and self-control respond more positively to participative leadership in terms of both satisfaction and performance than subordinates who do not have such preference. Also, studies mentioned by Runyon (1973) and Sadler (1970) showed that subordinates who were externally motivated were less satisfied with a participative style of leadership than subordinates internally motivated.

In relating the path-goal theory to sport, the following conclusions may be tentatively drawn:

(1) In an ambiguous task, for example in basketball, the directiveness or training behavior of the coach will have a positive effect since according to House and Mitchell (1974), if the tasks are ambiguous, directive leadership will complement the task. In a sport such as swimming, however, in which an athlete repeatedly performs the same stroke once it has been well learned, the task is considered non-ambiguous (Chelladurai and Saleh, 1978) and therefore a coach displaying a directive type of coaching will be considered a hindrance, and assumably, the athlete will be less satisfied.

(2) During a game or practice, if athletes are frustrated, or if they perceive the task as being dissatisfying, House and Mitchell (1974) would suggest that in this situation, the coach who utilizes supportive leadership behavior will have a positive effect on the athlete, hence, there will be an increase in the satisfaction of athletes.

(3) In the case of athletes performing in ambiguous or non-repetitive tasks (during a game or practice) the higher the training or achievement-oriented behavior the coach exhibits, the more confident and satisfied the athletes will be that their efforts will pay off in effective performance. However, in the case of athletes performing repetitive tasks, there will be no significant relationship between an achievement-oriented

coach and expectancies of the athletes that their efforts will lead to effective performance.

A purpose of a study recently done by Chelladurai and Saleh (1978), was to determine if the propositions by House (1971); House and Mitchell (1974) can be made general to sport and specifically to determine whether: (1) the task itself is a major determinant to the effectiveness of a specific leader behavior and, (2) to determine whether "structure and close supervision will result in increased coordination, satisfaction, and performance where the tasks are varied and interdependent as structure will regulate and clarify path-goal relationship" (House, 1971: 325).

The main focus of Chelladurai and Saleh's study (1978) is on the effects of sex, task dependence, and task variability in sports on preferred leadership. Variability refers to "the degree of environmental changes and the extent to which the athlete responds to these changes" (1978: 20). A low variability task is characterized by a "closed form of behavior where skills are executed in an environment where the stimuli are relatively stable, static and unchanging" (Robb, 1972: 122-126). This distinction is clearly demonstrated by the difference between a high jumper and a basketball rebounder in a game situation. The high jumper, whose environment is stable and predictable, initiates his own movement and therefore performs a closed skill. On the other hand, the basketball player rebounder also exhibits jumping ability, but the stimuli of his environment are unstable and unpredictable, and "his movements are paced externally by the location and velocity of the ball and other players. In that sense, he is involved in an open skill"

(Chelladurai and Saleh, 1978).

Dependence "is the extent to which the successful performance of a task depends upon the interaction with other tasks of the team, and where the unit's success is dependent on the coordination of these tasks. The distinction between individual sports and team sports is clearly based on this dimension" (Chelladurai and Saleh, 1978).

Though classification of the majority of the chosen sports is clear cut, the special case of badminton, squash and tennis needs an elaboration. While it is conceivable that an athlete in any of three sports could participate in both singles (independent) and doubles (interdependent), it is felt by Chelladurai and Saleh (1978) that the relative degree of interdependence is less when compared to sports like basketball and hockey. They continue by stating that the rules of badminton, squash and tennis prevent the players from passing the implement (bird or ball) among themselves. "As the study is designed to contrast the extent of interdependence inherent in the tasks, it is reasonable to classify these sports in the independent category rather than the interdependent category" (Chelladurai and Saleh, 1978).

In summary, the study included the following independent variables: sex, dependence (individual/team sports), and variability (closed/open) of the preferred sport. The dependent variable was the preferred leader behavior.

The subjects of their study were 160 students (eighty females and eighty males) enrolled in physical education degree programs at a Canadian university and all the subjects who participated in the study were knowledgeable in the sports of their choice.

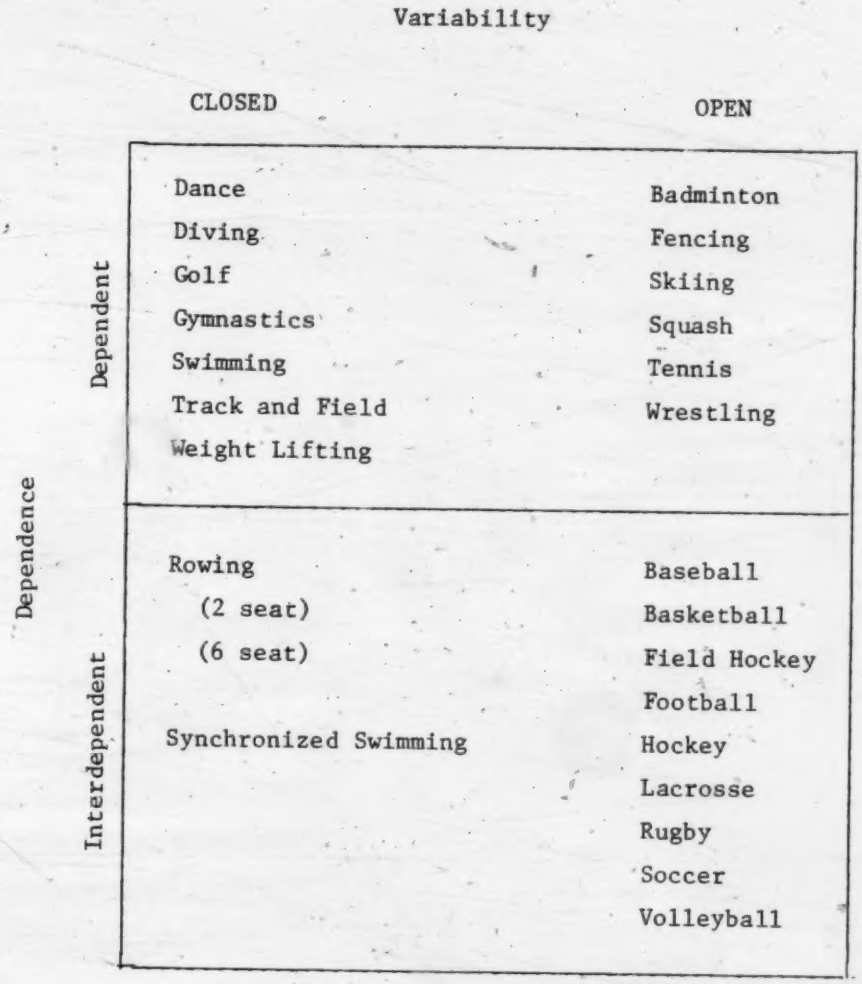

Figure 2. Classification of Sports Selected by the Subjects (Chelladurai and Saleh, 1978).

The results of Chelladurai and Saleh (1978) were as follows: (1) athletes participating in team sports (interdependent sports) expressed greater preference that their coach emphasize more training

than did the athletes participating in individual sports, while athletes participating in closed sports preferred more emphasis on training behavior than athletes in open sports; (2) males expressed a greater preference for their coach to be autocratic than did females; (3) females preferred more democratic behaviors than did males; (4) males preferred a more supportive coach than did females; (5) males in closed sports expected more supportive leader behavior than other males in open sports and females in open and closed sports; (5) there was no significant difference between the two sexes in the rewarding behavior dimension.

In sum, differences were found between males and females in their preference for a specific style of leadership and for social support. "The fact that respondents expressed differential preferences for democratic style and social support (two aspects of "consideration"), strengthens the claim for separating style from substance" (Chelladurai and Saleh, 1978).

The results also showed that the moderating effects of task dependency on training behavior support the path-goal theory. However, it was found that the routine in closed task coupled with the athlete's eagerness to excel, warrants more training behavior than suggested by the path-goal theory.

Autocratic and Democratic Styles of Coaching

The problem of how coaches can be democratic in their relations with athletes and at the same time maintain the necessary authority has been of concern to many researchers (Tannenbaum and Schmidt, 1958; McGregor, 1960, 1961; Vroom, 1968, Cratty, 1973 and Sage, 1975). The emergence of democratic behavior and autocratic behavior to indicate the style of behavior as contrasted to the substance of that behavior is consistent with the results of Meheut and Seigel (1975). House and Dessler (1971), House and Mitchell (1974), Schriesheim et al., (1976), Sheridan et al., (1975) and Yukl (1971) have also stressed the necessity to separate style from substance of behavior because it was recognized that in order to understand leadership, it is also necessary to understand the leader's interactions with the group, or his style of dealing with group members.

Early in the century the problem of this dichotomy, that is, democratic versus authoritative behavior, was not so acutely felt as was shown by the trait theory (Tannenbaum and Schmidt, 1958). Gradually, however, from the social sciences emerged the concept of group dynamics with its focus on the members of the group rather than solely on the leader. Evidence began to challenge the efficiency of highly directive leadership, and increasing attention was paid to problems of motivation and human relations (Tannenbaum and Schmidt, 1958, and Vroom, 1968).

Coaches, sooner or later, are confronted with the question of how much control they should be allowed to exert over their athletes. Authoritarianism, in the extreme, assumes that a coach makes all the decisions for the athletes, acts on his own, and insists that everything

be done his way, while in a democratic style of coaching, the coach lets the athletes participate in decision-making, and solicits their opinion and approval on important matters (Chelladurai, 1978).

There is a very clear stereotype of athletic coaches. Hendry said,

> The mass media.....tend to show the physical educationalist or coach as a muscular, dominant, aggressive, social individual. In recent years Amercian collegiate athletic coaches have been characterized as being highly authoritarian, dogmatic and manipulative (1972: 45).

Scott, a critic of American coaches, characterized the personality of coaches in this way: "For every relaxed, understanding coach.... there are one hundred rigid, authoritarian coaches" (1971: 394). Another critic stated:

> Traditionally you are going to find in the coaching profession men who are.....more interested in power and manipulations and less interested in humanistic approaches. They prefer control organization, unquestioned commitment to their philosophy and so on (Ogilvie, 1971: 33).

Barnes continues to elaborate on the concept of authoritarian coaches when he writes that "Most successful coaches are the ones with the worst reputations for brutality or meanness" (1971: 15). Discipline is the key word, Barnes feels, and anyone who does not conform to the system such as the "smart ass kids with long hair thinking about social problems" (1971: 15) cannot be tolerated by this type of coach.

Ogilvie and Tutko's statement regarding coaches as being "high success-driven men with the understanding need to be on top" (1966: 22)

was interpreted by Scott as meaning that,

> Coaches as a group are rather insensitive in their interpersonal relationships, and that, in an effort to produce winning teams, they quite readily manipulate and exploit others (1971: 134).

Although many rules and regulations are at times justifed by claiming improved performance levels, many coaches include regulations which do not allow for individual variations and for emotional support of athletes.

As Scott (1971) has suggested, in an effort to produce winning teams, coaches often exploit and manipulate athletes. Wolf (1972) and Parrish (1971) both suggest that some coaches are only concerned with their record and reputations and will use any tactic necessary regardless of the consequences to the players in order to win.

The allegations that have been made (Hendry, 1972; Ogilvie, 1971; Barnes, 1971; Ogilvie and Tutko, 1966; Scott, 1971; Wolf, 1972 and Parrish, 1971) concerning the coaching stereotype which has been promoted in the mass media, has undoubtedly led to a firm image of the personal-social characteristics of coaches by the general public (Sage, 1972).

The sweeping claims made by the American critics (Ogilvie and Tutko, 1966; Scot, 1971; Hendry, 1972 and Sage, 1972) concerning the authoritative, manipulative and exploitive coaches should only be taken as ancedotal evidence due to lack of supportive data. Also, one would have to query if American coaches can be compared to Canadian coaches since sport in the American culture places a stronger emphasis on coaches and athletes on winning, professionalism and patriotism (Bain, 1973, and Smith, 1978).

A Canadian study by Bain (1973) found contrary evidence relating to authoritative coaches. The purpose of this study was to examine authoritarianism of forty-two coaches of football and basketball teams. His results led to the following conclusions:

(1) A sample group of coaches scored significantly lower in authoritarianism as compared to a sample of the general male population of Edmonton.

(2) Coaches who scored highly in the personality authoritative measures also scored highly in the autocratic style of coaching.

(3) As age and experience of coaches increased, the autocratic style of coaching decreased.

Bain speculated that the reason for the decrease in autocratic behavior (hence, increase in democratic coaching) could possibly result because inexperienced coaches tend to emulate successful autocratic coaches. It may also be that as a coach gains experience, he will lose this tendency and develop a coaching style more suitable to his personality needs.

Thus, unlike Fiedler (1962, 1971, 1973), House (1971) and House and Mitchell (1974), Bain considers situational factors such as age, experience and personality structure of coaches in relation to the particular style of coaching.

Of particular interest is: (1) whether coaches act as they perceive that the public and athletes expect them to act; (2) whether personality

structures of coaches influence their style of coaching; and (3) whether it is the situational factors suggested by Fiedler (1967, 1971) and House (1971, 1974) that determines the style of coaching.

Many authors (Tannenbaum and Schmidt, 1958; Vroom, 1968; Cratty, 1973; Singer, 1972; Miklos, 1963; Lawless, 1962; and Fiedler, 1971) advocate a flexible style of leadership.

As stated concisely by Tannenbaum and Schmidt:

> The successful leader is one who is able to behave appropriately in different situations. If direction is in order, he is able to direct; if considerable participative freedom is called for, he is able to provide such freedom. Thus, the successful coach can be primarily characterized neither as a directive leader nor as a permissive one. Rather, he is one who maintains a high batting average in accurately assessing the forces that determine what his most appropriate behavior at any given time should be and in actually being able to behave accordingly (158: 101).

Of interest to this particular thesis is not the specific evaluation of the effectiveness of the leadership style utilized by the coach, but the gaining of a clearer insight into what athletes expect and how they perceive their coach in terms of exhibiting the two styles of leadership.

In about the year 1939, social scientists began examining more closely subordinates' perceptions of the leader. The classical studies by Lewin, Lippitt and White (1939) comparing autocratic and democratic leadership styles with four groups of boys, set in motion a number of research programs in this area (Patrick, 1973). Most of these studies compared task-oriented and person-centered styles: authoritarian versus

non-authoritarian (Shaw, 1955); participatory versus supervisory (Preston and Heintz, 1949 and Hare, 1953) and hierarchical versus autonomy (Morse and Reimer, 1956). The results of most of these investigations indicated that the person-centered, non-directive style was preferable in terms of personal growth to the task-oriented directive style.

Research and experience subsequent to these studies suggests that it was incorrect to stereotype a leader as being one type or another. Shaw comments that one type of leadership is not universally better that another, but that "the kind of leadership behavior that is most effective depends on the situation in which the leader finds himself" (1971: 275). He supports this statement with data from Fiedler's studies of the relationship between situational variables and effective leadership. Fiedler (1973) contends that the effectiveness of a leader to determine which style to use depends to an extent upon the expectations of subordinates when he states that:

> Different organizations have different characteristic styles, and the individuals in these organizations come to expect a particular style in their groups. An attempt to employ a particular style of leadership without regard to member expectations may hinder, more than help, a particular group (1973: 49).

As previously mentioned, a study done by Chelladurai and Saleh (1978), found that males had a greater preference or expectation for their coaches to be autocratic than did females, and as expected from the results, females preferred more democratic behavior than did males.

Cratty (1973) feels that people with strong needs to exert authority

over others will often seek and prefer authoritarian control over themselves. Thus, the athletes who show evidence of authoritarian habits will probably prefer an authoritarian coach, while athletes who are low in authority need, would prefer a democratic type of coach.

Some athletes may prefer a combination of both of the above-noted styles of leadership, and even if coaches are aware of this situation, it may be difficult to incorporate both styles. As Patrick stated, "Even leaders who recognize the mutual dependency of these two needs, have difficulty establishing a leadership style that effectively incorporates both" (1973: 82).

A study done by Bird (1976) used players and head-coaches within two highly competitive divisions of the Southern Women's Intercollegiate Athletic Conference Volleyball League. Bird found that in the most highly skilled division coaches of winning teams were viewed as more socio-emotional while losing teams saw the leadership of coaches as being task-oriented. The converse was true in the less-skilled division. Bird's implication relating to her findings was that on the more highly skilled teams the athletes are sufficiently task-oriented themselves. Therefore, a more effective coach is one who provides necessary care and emotional support. This coincides with Fiedler's findings, in that since the task does not present a problem, the leader will revert to the relation-motivated type of leadership. Bird reasons that in the less skilled division, the athletes perceive their winning coaches as exhibiting more of a task-oriented leader behavior because it is felt that coaches who are capable of focusing player attention on the goal of winning may eventually be categorized in the more highly skilled

division. She concluded by summarizing that if her speculations have merit, it would appear justifiable to suggest that the most effective coaching style requires modification according to level of skill. Once again, Bird was in agreement with Fiedler (1971) proposing that if the skill level is low, the most effective coaching style is task-oriented.

In summary, the dichotomy of autocratic and democratic styles of coaching includes many aspects including: (1) recent emphasis on human relations; (2) the "stereotypic coach"; (3) flexibility of the style of leadership; (4) people's perception of coaches' (5) expectations of coaches; and (6) situational determinants.

Perception

The many hours coaches spend with their athletes and the intensity of these combined efforts towards at least partially shared goals, suggest the potential influence which they may have on the development of the athletes. A person's frame of reference, or how something or somebody appears to him, is affected by his perceptions, and in turn affects what he learns (Singer, 1972).

A frame of reference

> is the perceptual judgement or attitude about persons, objects, or event, based on comparative information. It is therefore a relative matter. One's view of materials or skills to be learned determines the extent to which they will be acquired and retained (Singer, 1972: 351).

Research shows that people tend to remember best that which supports their social-emotional needs rather than that which conflicts with these needs. In sport, if athletes agree with the coaching strategy or the technique the coaches use for executing a task, they have the tendency to learn the task well. It appears obvious that when people perceive each other in the same way, for example, as having similar ideas, mutual respect occurs and the reaction of the followers to the leader is favorable. Judgements are partially affected by background and attitude, which in turn could determine how one evaluates others. (Singer, 1972). Unfortunately, Singer believes that previous experiences may distort present situations. For example, if an athlete liked his former coach very much and dislikes his present coach, his reactions to the latter may be exaggerated, and his interpretation of the actions and words of the coach may be warped. Furthermore, the relationship between coach and athlete in such cases suffers as a consequence of the comparison of earlier coaches. In turn, morale may be lowered and output may possible diminish.

Ideally, the frame of reference an athlete has toward his coach is one of high esteem. Singer (1972) felt that wise and sensitive coaches try to determine the kind of rapport they have with their athletes and if the need arises, they would improve the relationship toward athletes.

According to every criteria which may be applied, the athletic coach is a powerful leader. He can make decisions concerning team membership, the duties each group member may assume, and often the general manner of reaching team goals. However, in agreeing with Singer

(1972), Cratty states, "The effectiveness of a group leader is at least partially dependent upon the group members' perceptions of his status, competencies, and personal attributes" (1973: 232).

A study reported by Percival (1976) examined the athletes' perceptions of their coaches. The interest of Percival in this topic started when he analyzed his own coaching behavior via films, tape recorders and the personal observations of friends. He concluded, as the result of this self-analysis, that his own perception of himself as a coach was at marked odds with the judgement of those who observed him. Particularly incongruent were the observations of his athletes as contrasted to his self-judgements.

From approximately 1969 to 1971 Percival collected structured and unstructured comments and judgements from 382 athletes (318 males and sixty-four females) in Canada, representing participants in twenty-five sports. Additionally, he obtained responses from sixty-four coaches, in which fourteen were females, covering evaluations of their own professional behavior.

His survey found marked differences obtained in mean scores when athletes were asked to rate the leadership of their coaches on a ten-point scale as compared to the rating the coaches gave themselves. These self-ratings and the ratings of athletes differed by about forty percentage points. On the average, the coaches ranked themselves at about seven on the ten-point scale, whereas the athletes ranked their coaches at about four on the same scale.

To further explore the problem, Percival asked the athletes and coaches to break down their rankings into three primary categories

representing opinions about personality, knowledge and mechanics. When the evaluations of the athletes were compared to the perceptions of coaches on the same qualities, the coaches, again, did not fare too well. Apparently, the most marked discrepancies between the athletes' judgements and the coaches' judgements of themselves occurred within the personality dimension. Of the coaches, seventy-two percent scored themselves as having a "positive" coaching personality, but only fifty-two percent of the athletes gave them the same rating. The coaches were given a generally negative evaluation (sixty-six percent) by the 382 athletes participating in the survey, and only twenty-four percent of the athletes gave their coaches a positive ranking.

Therefore, this study, suggests that athletes in general will perceive their coach as being a negative type of leader which further suggests that the expectations the athletes have of coaches are unlikely to be fulfilled.

In Percival's further analysis, he found a significantly increased negative response from those participating in individual sports in comparison to team sports. His possible explanation was that in individual sports, there is considerably more personal interrelationship between coach and athlete, and therefore, the coach must have an increased degree of competency and positive personality to get a higher rating.

Danielson, Zelhart and Drake (1975) did not investigate coaches' perceptions of themselves, but they did research the perceptions athletes had concerning their coaches

Specifically, they questioned 160 junior and senior high school

hockey players, ages twelve to eighteen years, who attended a summer sport camp at The University of Alberta. Danielson, et al., have categorized commonly perceived coaching behaviors as follows:

1 Competitive training

- Behavior concerned with motivation of athletes to train harder and better.
- Emphasis on winning via better training and performance.
- Little emphasis on behaviors involving coach-athlete relationship and individual and group participation in decision making.

2 Initiation

- Behaviors involving an open approach to problem solving using new methods.
- Little emphasis on organization in the form of equipment provision.
- Little emphasis on criticism of performance.

3 Interpersonal team operation

- Coordination of team members in an attempt to facilitate cooperation at possible expense of protocol
- Behaviors concerned with getting members to interact so that the team functions efficiently
- Little emphasis on criticism of performance.

4 Social

- Socially oriented behavior outside the athletic situation.
- Little emphasis on consistency of performance, organization or team morale.

5 Representation

- Behaviors concerned with representing the team favorably in contacts with outsiders.

6 Organized communication

- Behaviors concerned with either organization or communication with no concern for interpersonal support.
- Little emphasis on either criticism or reward.

7 Recognition

- Behaviors concerned with feedback and reinforcement of both performance and team participation in decision making.

8 General excitement

- Arousing behaviors involving disorganized approach to team operation.
- Little emphasis on recognition or team integration.

(1975: 331).

Their results revealed that there appeared to be much more emphasis on communicative behaviors in coaching than any other type, (particularly representative, integrative, and dominating behaviors). Danielson et al., 1975, believes that this is partially in agreement with the position that coaching in hockey, and sport in general, is not characterized by behaviors which encourage pleasant group atmosphere or which show concern for the interest of the group. In contradiction with the general conception of the authoritarian and dominant coach in hockey, only two of the nineteen items classifed as dominant were seen to commonly characterize coaching. Thus, the majority of behavior seen by athletes as commonly occurring in hockey coaching, appears to be related to the passing of impersonal information either to or from the coach.

Although Percival (1976) and Danielson, et al., (1975) reported that coaches generally do not emphasize personal factors in relation to athletes, Synder (1975) found conflicting results. He did a study investigating basketball coaches and two varsity team members in each of 270 Ohio high schools. It was found that seventy percent of their coaches gave them advice about personal problems.

A possible explanation for the difference in results was given by Mitchell, et al., (1977). They claim that many athletes know generally how well they are performing relative to others. Therefore, when they are asked to rate the behavior of coaches, it is possible that these

ratings are affected by their perceptions of how well they (the athletes) are performing. On the basis of the attribution theory (Kelley, 1973), the perceptions athletes have of their own performance may be attributed not only from within, but also feedback from players, coaches, media, spectators and friends. These various causes of outcomes on the athletes' perception of their performance may influence the rating given to coaches.

A second explanation can be extracted from Jags and Vroom (1975). They have reported a tendency for people to overestimate their similarity to others. They have likewise shown that the magnitude of that tendency varies with the degree to which the subjects are attracted to the person they are describing. They continue by stating that:

> The way in which one individual perceives another must almost certainly influence his relation to this other person whether or not his perceptions are accurate. Our measure is focusing on the individual's perception of others, rather than on the accuracy of his judgements. (1975: 118).

In addition, Jags and Vroom held the opinion that it would be advantageous for coaches to be able to see their own behaviors as it is perceived by their athletes since it would enable the coaches to either change their future behavior so that it will be congruent with the expectations of athletes, or modify the expectations and the resulting perceptions of those athletes.

Furthermore, Thompson also deals with perceptions and the effects of perceiving others. He maintains that the perceptions and interpretations of individuals in what they see are limited to the extent to which background and the meaningfulness of various encounters experienced

by individuals.

In conclusion, the concept of perception seems to be closely related to how athletes describe their coaches. Studies done by Percival (1976) and Danielson, et al., (1975) found that coaches were not perceived by athletes as displaying leadership tendencies in the social-emotional dimension. Conversely, Synder (1972) found that athletes perceive their coaches' behavior as being more positive in the the above dimension. Also purported were various interpretations relating to aspects affecting perception of athletes toward coaches. They are: (1) previous experience of past coaches; (2) athletes remember best that which supports their social-emotional needs; (3) perceptions in relation to the attribution theory; (4) similarity of others; and (5) athlete's own experience and background of meaning.

Rewarding, Social Support and Satisfaction

Athletes are individuals with individual needs and, therefore, there may be a variety of reasons why athletes participate in sports. For example, some athletes may have a high need for social support and reward behavior from coaches, but others may be more motivated to achieve success than being concerned with close personal relationships. Moreover, some athletes may have relatively high achievement needs, whereas others possess lower achievement needs.

Due to the assortment of reasons for which athletes choose to participate in sports, many authors are concerned with individual

differences and suggest that coaches should be made aware of these diversities (Singer, 1972; Cratty, 1970; Botterill, 1976; Widdop, 1976). Widdop (1976) emphasized that since each athlete has individual needs, coaches should try to understand the needs and goals of athletes. Coinciding with Widdop's belief, Botterill elaborates by stating:

> The first and most important step in development of committed athletes or sport participants is to find out why they came out. Unfortunately this step is often overlooked and coaches often proceed to lay on leadership on the basis of their assumption about the group (1976: 6).

Since the milieu of sport is mainly centred around winning and losing and since an outcome of a game normally consists of only one winner, coaches should have other means to engender satisfaction to athletes. Singer (1972) feels that coaches have the task of organizing and structuring the group and due to these situational pressures, the emphasis of coaching tends to be placed on winning without regard for personal consideration of team members. If the stress is on winning, it is the belief of Singer that athletes will be treated in a rigid and authoritative manner, thus jeopardizing interpersonal relationships between coaches and athletes.

Cratty (1970) speculated that some coaches engage in authoritative style of leadership to gratify their personal need to control rather than being concerned for the psychological welfare of athletes. Considering the psychological aspect of athletes, Cratty (1970) agrees with Butt (1976) that coaches who are more sensitive to the quality of interpersonal relationships with athletes will be more effective and enhance satisfaction of athletes with themselves and with the leadership provided by their coaches.

Means by which coaches can increase the psychological well being of athletes is to reward them contingent upon performance and by providing social support through displaying interest in athletes as individuals regardless of performance (Chelladurai, 1978). Both of these leadership dimensions have been suggested as methods of improving performance, while at the same time, serving as moderators for satisfaction. For example, "an athlete is not willing to learn unless the coach provides him with a right atmosphere and feeling that he really cares about him as a person" (Singer, 1972: 167). Likewise Gibb (1969) posits that leaders should reward good performance while at the same time have effective means of showing appreciation. Gowan sums up desirable behavioral qualities of a coach in his statement that, "The coach is the catalyst in the process of improving performance and in assisting the athlete to find satisfaction, enjoyment and fulfillment in the total endeavor" (1975: 15).

Rushall (1975), a follower of behavior analysis, believes that participation in sports should be constructive and rewarding to athletes. He continues to elaborate on the concept of behavior modification with the basic proposition being that if an activity is rewarding (contingent upon performance) satisfaction results and therefore, increases the likelihood of repeating the specific activity or behavior. (For an in-depth analysis in the understanding of behavior modification relating to sport, consult Rushall and Siedontop, 1972).

Research into the complex subject of human satisfaction has led to the conclusion that some individuals are content with life to a greater extent than are others (Bacon, 1971). Ideally, it would be

desirable to set up a mathematical measure of satisfaction but human beings vary in the value that they place upon rewards that may lead to satisfaction. Herzberg assumed that people can judge their own psychological state during events; he called this an internal criteria (1959: 12). Herzberg and his colleagues also assumed that "people can place their own feelings on a continuum" (1959: 14). The assumption made is that people are aware of their own feelings of satisfaction or dissatisfaction, according to their own standards of expectations.

Zaleznik, Christensen and Roethlisberger's (1958) theory of distributive justice posits that an individual's satisfaction depends upon the extent to which he perceives his efforts as being justly rewarded. Zeleznik et al. suggest that such rewards can be external (for example, economic rewards, pay and security) or internal (for example, prestige and human relations). This duality of rewards is similar to Butt's (1976) and Deci's (1972) concept of extrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation. In terms of external reward Deci (1971, 1972) suggests that if an individual is engaged in some activity because of intrinsic motivation, and if he begins to receive external rewards in the form of verbal reinforcement, the external reward will enhance his internal motivation. He feels that a reward such as social approval is not looked upon as a controlling aspect, but rather as a form of affection. Oldham held the same belief when he stated: "Personal rewarding is one of the most motivational strategies that predicted leader effectiveness" (1976: 67).

The way in which athletes react to rewards or social support given

by coaches is not dependent upon objective reality, but rather upon how athletes view the meaningfulness of such behaviors provided by their coaches. Korman (1965) expressed the opinion that individuals find situations more satisfying when their self-perceived needs or expectancies are satisfied. He further acknowledged that there is a positive relationship between need fulfillment and satisfaction.

Due to the variety of individual needs that athletes possess, the leadership provided by coaches should vary to the degree to which athletes find satisfaction. The extent to which coaches reward or provide satisfaction to athletes can be referred to as effectiveness while the degree to which athletes expect coaches to reward or satisfy is referred to as attractiveness (Bernard, 1971).

A parallel could be drawn between Bernard's view on effectiveness and attractiveness compared to expectancies and valances of the Path-Goal Theory proposed by House and Mitchell (1974). In retrospect, one of the claims made by the Path-Goal Theory was that subordinates (athletes) would be satisfied with their leader to the extent to which subordinates (athletes) expected that their efforts would lead to reward (similar to attractiveness) and the actual reward received (similar to effectiveness). Athletes, therefore, may expect coaches to reward and give social support, and coaches may actually believe that they furnish such leadership behavior, however, it is the perception that athletes have concerning the behavior supplied by coaches that is of importance. Korman states, "The greater the congruence between subordinates' expectations of leadership and their observation of these behaviors, the greater will be their satisfaction with the leader" (1966: 355).

The discrepancy model, shown in Figure 3 below, brings into focus the abstraction of perception, leadership behaviors of coaches, satisfaction of athletes with coaches, personality of athletes and situational variables.

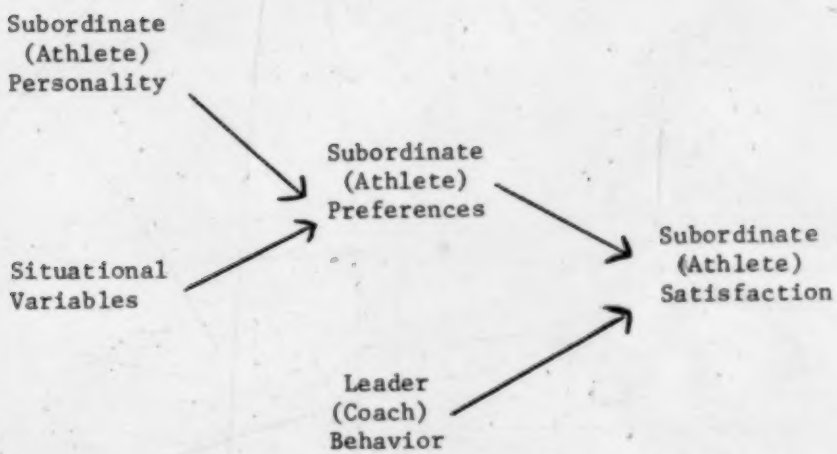

Figure 3. A Discrepancy Model of Subordinate (Athlete) Satisfaction with the Leader (Coach). (Adapted from Yukl, 1971: 421).

According to the discrepancy model, the relationship between leadership behavior of coaches and satisfaction of athletes will vary somewhat depending upon the preference or expectancy level of athletes. For example, House and Mitchell (1974) postulated that if subordinates (athletes) are basically person-oriented individuals, they would prefer a leader (coach) who supports such needs and, hence, increases the

satisfaction of athletes.

The major situational determinant of the preference level is the importance attached by athletes to the behavior of their coaches. For example, if a task is ambiguous, the athletes would expect or prefer coaches to behave in a directive manner (House and Mitchell, 1974). On the other hand, if athletes perform well in a specific skill that is important to them, a coach who rewards will be providing satisfaction for the athletes (Rushall, 1972; Oldham, 1976; Gibb, 1969).

The major features of the proposed discrepancy model can be summarized in the following terms: (1) The athletes' satisfaction with the leader is a function of the discrepancy between actual behavior of the coaches and the behavior preference of athletes,and (2) Athletes' preferences are determined by the combined effect of personality of the athletes and situational variables.

Role and Role Conflict

A coach working in a university, or in any particular setting, has to conform to many roles. As Sarbin and Allen stated, "Roles are enacted in social situations and these situations influence the roles" (1973: 103). Roles of coaches may be viewed in terms of role expectations; for example, the expectation that coaches assume of themselves; expectations of athletes; expectations of other coaches and expectations of superiors, wives or husbands. It is possible that situations could arise

whereby coaches would assume duties which may or may not be in agreement with the expectations of others. As Sarbin and Allen state, "The less defined the role, the higher the probability of conflict" (1973: 104). They also suggest that the more roles an individual can effectively assume, the better off he is to meet the demands of the institution.

When an individual enters an organization and occupies a position within it, he may be confronted by a set of vague and contradictory expectations for his role behavior (Abbott,1960). For example, a coach may be expected by his athletes to emphasize behaviors associated with social support, while the head of a physical education department or the public may put pressure on the coach to emphasize leadership behavior associated with training or production.

McGraph, in outlining his concept of role theory, maintains that:

> It is important to distinguish between the behaviors expected of a person in a particular role and the behavior that a person actually exhibits while acting in that role (1964: 130).

McGraph (1964) believes that the role behavior of any person in a given role may or may not match or fulfill the expectations he, and others in related roles, hold for the incumbent of that role. He continues by stating, "People tend to view their own role behavior and the role behavior of others in relation to their expectation of behavior, and they evaluate themselves and others on the basis of such relationship" (1964: 131). It appears that if the above statement proves to be valid, coaches should actually be aware of the expectations the athletes have concerning the leadership provided by coaches since according to

McGraph (1964), coaches will behave according to expectations others have concerning their roles.

Role Conflict

Sarbin and Allen in agreement with Miles (1976) state that:

> There are a range of conflicts that can occur when an incumbent is required to conform simultaneously to a number of expectations which are mutually exclusive, contradictory, or are inconsistent to that adjustment to one set of requirements which makes adjustments impossible, or at least difficult " (1964: 242).

Role conflict can arise in a number of ways (Sarbin and Allen, 1964) and a few examples follow as illustrations:

(1) Disagreement within the referent groups defining the same role. For example, different athletes may have different expectations for the behavior of their coaches.

(2) Disagreement among referent groups. For example, administrators and athletes may differ in their expectations for the behavior of coaches.

(3) Contradictions in the expectations of two or more roles which an incumbent may be occupying at the same time. For example, a coach working with personal friends among his athletes.

The concept of role conflict has concerned students of administration ever since it was first recognized as an important variable in administration. (Sarbin and Allen, 1964). Campbell, Corbally, and Ramseyer (1962) have illustrated how administrators could be affected by a number of alter-groups, each holding its own expectations. Similarly, in relation to a university coach, these expectations might be expressed as shown in Figure 4.

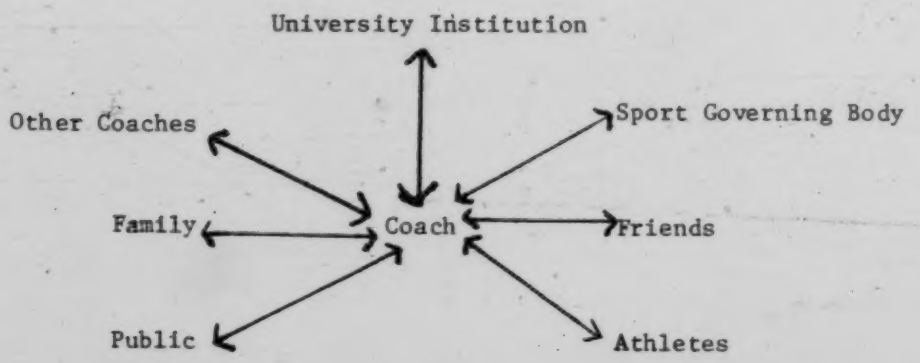

Figure 4. The Main Alter Groups of Coaches. (Adapted from Campbell et al., 1962).

This simple illustration may be used with a variety of referent groups to show conflict-producing or incompatible expectations that may affect an incumbent in any role.

Role definers, or those referent groups who attempt to define role, are seldom in complete agreement. Miklos described the phenomenon,

> The concept of role conflict refers to the observation that there is never complete agreement within and among the groups which may be considered to hold legitimate expectations for the incumbent in a particular position (1963: 52).

He continues by stating that "role conflicts occur as a result of non-congruence in the expectations of referent groups among themselves or with the individuals" (1963: 53).

Of importance is whether or not coaches are able to provide effective leadership while this potential conflict exists in their role expectation. According to Thompson (1964), the extent to which this conflict actually develops and becomes real will depend upon one factor, that being the congruence between expectations and perception of the behavior of coaches held by the reference groups with which he is involved in the process of coaching. Lawless (1972) believes that the behavior we expect from a person depends largely on the role we perceive him to have. Although this study pertains only to the expectations that athletes have on the leadership of coaches, it would be ludicrous to ignore other referent groups, since they too, perceive various role expectations of coaches. Miles feels that a conglomerate of groups is "generally regarded as dysfunctional for the organization" (1975: 336).

Salancik (1975) suggests that managers can resolve conflict by giving more weight to the opinion of subordinates (athletes) when the issue is important to subordinates while simultaneously giving more weight to the opinions of superiors (administrators) when those opinions are important to superiors.

In general, one could interpret the statement of Salancik (1975)

by saying that the more a coach is required to coordinate his activities, other than with his athletes, the more difficult it is for him to behave in ways which correspond to the expectations and desires of his athletes. Or, from another point of view, the more important it is for him to be sensitive to their expectations and effective in selling them or accepting expectations in harmony with his own.

The importance of having adequate knowledge of the expectations which are held for a role incumbent has been illustrated by studies such as that carried out by Ferneau (1962). He investigated the expectations for the consultant role as perceived by administrators and by the consultants themselves and then related the degree of similarity between the two to the extent which consultant services were considered to be effective. His study revealed that when there was general agreement between administrators and consultants on the role of the consultant, the services were rated as more favorable than when there was a large measure of disagreement between the expectations of the administrator and the consultants. Ferneau (1962) concluded that consultants and administrators must perceive each other as functioning according to their expectations if the consultant is to be effective.

Chase (1953) researched the expectations of the leadership of teachers with the criteria determining their satisfaction with the school system. Chase (1953) found that there was a very close relationship between teachers' evaluations of leadership in terms of congruence between expected and perceived behaviors of those in administrative and supervisory positions and the extent to their satisfaction with their jobs in a particular situation. He concluded that educational leaders

must understand the expectation of teachers if they wish to bring about effective group action.

Bidwell (1955) also found a positive relationship between fulfilled expectation of leadership and expressed satisfaction with the school environment. He discovered that a divergence between expectations and perceptions could cause tension and therefore, result in less satisfaction. His study also revealed that the choice leadership style chosen made little difference; either authoritarian or democratic expectations for the superintendent or principal could be held by teachers, and either, if fulfilled, would lead to satisfaction.

To conclude the concept of role and role conflict, it can be speculated from the research given that coaches have various expectations relating to their role as a leader. Furthermore, it can be summarize from the results that the closer the congruence of the expected behaviors of coaches by athletes and their actual behaviors perceived, the greater will be the satisfaction provided to their athletes.

CHAPTER III

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Hypotheses

To test the purpose of this study (outlined in Chapter I) the author utilized two general hypotheses and under each, five sub-hypotheses were developed to examine separately each of the five leadership dimensions.

HYPOTHESIS ONE

There will be a divergence to a significant degree between perceived and expected leadership behavior of coaches as assessed by athletes.

1:1 There will be a divergence to a significant degree between perceived and expected training behavior of coaches as assessed by athletes.

1:2 There will be a divergence to a significant degree between perceived and expected autocratic behavior of coaches as assessed by athletes.

1:3 There will be a divergence to a significant degree between perceived and expected democratic behavior of coaches as assessed by athletes.

1:4 There will be a divergence to a significant degree between perceived and expected social support behavior of coaches as assessed by athletes.

1:5 There will be a divergence to a significant degree between perceived and expected rewarding behavior of coaches as assessed by athletes.

HYPOTHESIS TWO

There will be a significant relationship between, one, the difference of perceived and expected behavior of coaches, and two, the satisfaction with coaching leadership, as assessed by athletes.

2:1 There will be a significant relationship between, one, the difference of perceived and expected training behavior of coaches, and two, the satisfaction with coaching leadership, as assessed by athletes.

2:2 There will be a significant relationship between, one, the difference of perceived and expected autocratic behavior of coaches, and two, the satisfaction with coaching leadership, as assessed by athletes.

2:3 There will be a significant relationship between, one, the difference of perceived and expected democratic behavior of coaches, and two, the satisfaction with coaching leadership, as assessed by athletes.

2:4 There will be a significant relationship between, one, the difference of perceived and expected social support behavior of coaches, and two, the satisfaction with

coaching leadership, as assessed by athletes.

2:5 There will be a significant relationship between, one, the difference of perceived and expected rewarding behaviors of coaches, and two, the satisfaction with coaching leadership, as assessed by athletes.

Sample

This study was subjected to ten intercollegiate female basketball teams with their head coaches affiliated with the Canadian Intercollegiate Athletic Union (CIAU). Table I illustrates the number of athletes per team.

TABLE I

NUMBER OF ATHLETES PER TEAM

Teams	Number of Athletes
A	12
B	10
C	8
D	8
E	8
F	11
G	11
H	12
I	7
J	10
Total	99

Instrument

The instrument, entitled Leadership in Sports, was developed by Chelladurai (1978) of the University of Western Ontario. Due to its recent development, there is no statistical evidence for the degree of reliability and validity of this instrument, however, because of the factual nature of the questions and the assurance of complete anonymity of the respondents, there appears to be an acceptable degree of face validity.

The instrument completed by the athletes contained four sections. In section one the respondents provided some personal data relative to their age; the number of years of participation in basketball; the number of years played in interuniversity competitions in basketball; the number of years of membership on the present team; and whether they are or have been a member of a varsity team in any other sport, and if so, they were asked to list the particular sport. In section two, the athletes rated, within the framework of the statements, the behavior they expect a coach to exhibit. In section three, the athletes rated, again within the framework of the statements, the behavior of their coach as they perceive such behavior. Section four consisted of a scale by which the athletes indicated their degree of satisfaction with the leadership provided by their coach (see Appendix B).

Collection of Data

The data for this study was collected in February and March of 1978. When the intention of the study was confirmed, all the teams from the Western Conference and teams which had the possibility of being represented in the Canadian National Basketball Tournament were contacted by letter requesting their cooperation in the study (see Appendix A). Stamped, self-addressed reply letters were enclosed for convenience of coaches in replying.

To obtain the data needed, the investigator personally distributed the questionnaire to respective teams within six hours (before or after) of playing time.

Method of Scoring

Section one of the questionnaire, relating to the personal data of athletes, was not used within this research. However, recommendation for further study related to the above aspects are listed in Chapter V. Section two of the questionnaire, concerned with how athletes prefer a coach to act, contained thirty-seven items pertaining to the statement, "I PREFER THE COACH ...." Items 1,5,11,15,20,25,31,34,43,49 referred to training behavior; items 2,8,12,16,22,28,32,39,44 referred to the autocratic behavior; items 4,9,13,18,23,29,35,40,46 referred to democratic behavior; items 3,10,14,19 referred to social support and items 6,17,26,38,48 referred to rewarding behavior. These facts, however, were not divulged to the respondents (see Appendix C). Section three

of the questionnaire was concerned with how athletes perceived their coach as acting. This section contained the same thirty-seven items as in section two but in this section the statements were phrased "MY COACH ..."

Each item in section two and three was scored by the athletes on a scale ranging from five to one corresponding respectively to answers of always; often; occasionally; seldom; and never. Section four, concerning the satisfaction of athletes with the leadership behavior provided by their coach, was scored on a scale ranging from one to seven corresponding respectively to answers of very satisfied; moderately satisfied; slightly satisfied; neutral; slightly dissatisfied; moderately dissatisfied; and very dissatisfied. Therefore, the lower the score the higher the degree of satisfaction.

The scores of section two and three were totalled for each of the five leadership behavior by summing the scores assigned to responses on each of the items pertaining to the specific dimension. The scores of each of the respondents on each dimension could theoretically fall in the range as shown in Table II.

To obtain the discrepancy score, that is, the difference in perceived and expected behavior of coaches as viewed by the athletes, the mean scores of the respondents on each dimension of leadership were calculated and then the differences were taken.

For clarity and ease of referral, section two of the questionnaire in which the athletes were requested to depict how their coaches acted, will be designated as ATHLETE-PERCEIVED in the remainder of the study. Similarly, section three of the questionnaire wherein the athletes were

requested to divulge how they preferred their coach to act, will be referred to as ATHLETE-EXPECTED.

TABLE II

POSSIBLE RANGE OF SCORES

Leadership Dimension	Range of Scores
Training	10-50
Autocratic	9-45
Democratic	9-45
Social Support	4-20
Rewarding	5-25

A problem arose with regard to determining the number of respondents per coach necessary to provide a valid index score for the behavior of coaches. Halpin (1957) indicated that experience suggested a minimum of four respondents per leader was desirable. Therefore, on the basis of Halpin's results, this problem was easily alleviated within this study.

Treatment of Data Analysis

In this section, the specific analysis used in analyzing the data is listed by hypotheses.

HYPOTHESIS ONE

Hypothesis One stated that there will be a divergence to a significant degree between perceived and expected behavior of coaches as assessed by athletes. Included under hypothesis one were five sub-hypotheses related to specific dimensions of leadership. To test each sub-hypothesis, a t-test at the .05 level of significance on dependent samples was used.

HYPOTHESIS TWO

Hypothesis two stated that there will be a significant relationship between, one, the difference of perceived and expected behavior of coaches, and two, the satisfaction with coaching leadership, as assessed by athletes. Included, also, under hypothesis two, were five sub-hypotheses related to specific dimensions of leadership. The Pearson's Product Moment Correlations Coefficients at the .05 level of significance were used to test each sub-hypothesis.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The thesis has enumerated two general hypotheses in order to investigate the expected and perceived behavior of coaches and the satisfaction of athletes with the leadership provided by coaches. Included were the five behavior dimensions: training, autocratic, democratic, social support and rewarding. This chapter is concerned with the organization and analysis of the data pertinent to the hypotheses. The data is treated and analyzed by stating results under each sub-hypothesis while the discussion follows after the completed results.

Results

Table III indicates the t-test of significant mean difference between perceived and expected leadership behavior of coaches as viewed by athletes. The stated sub-hypothesis along with results are as follows:

Hypothesis 1:1

Hypothesis 1:1 states that there will be divergence to a significant degree between perceived and expected training behavior of coaches as assessed by athletes. As shown from Table III the mean difference between

TABLE III

T-TEST FOR PERCEIVED AND EXPECTED
BEHAVIOR OF COACHES AS ASSESSED BY ATHLETES

Leadership Dimensions	Number of Cases	Perceived Expected	Means	Mean Differences	Standard Deviations	T Values	Degrees of Freedom	2-Tail Probability
Training	99	Per. Exp.	37.12 43.43	-6.31	5.75 4.09	-10.38*	98	.000
Autocratic	99	Per. Exp.	32.22 25.82	6.39	4.41 4.23	12.25*	98	.000
Democratic	99	Per. Exp.	22.16 25.89	-3.73	4.55 4.11	-6.46*	98	.000
Social Support	99	Per. Exp.	11.84 14.24	-2.39	4.06 2.77	-7.84*	98	.000
Rewarding	99	Per. Exp.	17.54 21.31	-3.76	2.77 2.18	-9.84*	98	.000

*$p < .05$

perceived and expected training as viewed by athletes of their coaches was -6.31 which proved to be significant at the .05 level. This indicates that athletes perceived their coaches as exhibiting less training behavior than the athletes expected.

Hypothesis 1:2

Hypothesis 1:2 states that there will be divergence to a significant degree between perceived and expected autocratic behavior of coaches as assessed by athletes. As Table III exemplifies, the mean difference of 6.39 showed significance between perceived and expected autocratic behavior at the .05 level. That is, the athletes perceived their coaches as exhibiting more autocratic behavior than the athletes expected.

Hypothesis 1:3

Hypothesis 1:3 states that there will be divergence to a significant degree between perceived and expected democratic behavior of coaches as assessed by athletes. A mean difference of -3.73 was confirmed to be significant at the .05 level as shown in Table III. Therefore, athletes perceived their coaches as displaying significantly less democratic behavior than expected.

Hypothesis 1:4

Hypothesis 1:4 states that there will be divergence to a significant degree between perceived and expected social support behavior of coaches as assessed by athletes.

As revealed in Table III a mean difference of -2.39 proved to be significant at the .05 level. Based upon this significance, it appears that athletes perceive themselves receiving less social support than expected from their coaches.

Hypothesis 1:5

Hypothesis 1:5 states that there will be divergence to a significant degree between perceived and expected rewarding behavior of coaches as assessed by athletes. As displayed by Table III the mean difference of -3.76 was significant at the .05 level. Hence, athletes perceived their coaches as not rewarding them as much as the athletes expected.

The results of the following sub-hypotheses are designated in Table IV which indicates the Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficients of the discrepancy scores with the satisfaction of athletes with the leadership of coaches.

Hypothesis 2:1

Hypothesis 2:1 states that there will be a significant relationship between, one, the difference of perceived and expected training behavior of coaches, and two, the satisfaction with the coaching leadership, as assessed by athletes. As indicated by Table IV, the negative correlation of -.47 proved to be significant at the .05 level. This illustrates an inverse relationship representing that the greater the discrepancy scores between perceived and expected behavior of coaches on training, as viewed by athletes, the less their satisfaction with leadership of coaches.

TABLE IV

PEARSON'S PRODUCT MOMENT CORRELATION OF COEFFICIENTS
OF THE DISCREPANCY SCORES AND SATISFACTION OF ATHLETES WITH COACHES

Leadership Dimensions	Discrepancy Scores	Correlation Coefficients	Probability
Training	-6.31	-.47*	.001
Autocratic	6.39	.31*	.001
Democratic	-3.73	-.23*	.011
Social Support	-3.76	-.42*	.001
Rewarding	-2.39	-.37*	.001

*$p < .05$

Hypothesis 2:2

Hypothesis 2:2 states that there will be a significant relationship between, one, the difference of perceived and expected autocratic behavior of coaches, and two, the satisfaction with coaching leadership, as assessed by athletes. Table IV exemplifies that the positive correlation of .31 was significant at the .05 level. This result indicates that the greater the discrepancy scores between perceived and expected autocratic behavior of coaches as viewed by athletes, a greater satisfaction was expressed by athletes with their coaches.

Hypothesis 2:3

Hypothesis 2:3 states that there will be a significant relationship between, one, the difference of perceived and expected democratic behavior of coaches, and two, the satisfaction with coaching leadership, as assessed by athletes. The negative correlation of -.23 proved to be significant as shown in Table IV at the .05 level. This demonstrated that athletes are less satisfied with coaches if there is a greater discrepancy score between perceived and expected behavior of coaches in the democratic leadership dimension.

Hypothesis 2:4

Hypothesis 2:4 states that there will be a significant relationship between, one, the difference of perceived and expected social support behavior of coaches, and two, the satisfaction with coaching leadership, as assessed by athletes. As revealed in Table IV, the negative correlation of -.37 was again significant at the .05 level. Due to

this significance, it appears that the greater the difference between the perceptions and expectations of athletes pertaining to social support behavior of coaches, the less satisfaction the coaches provided to athletes.

Hypothesis 2:5

Hypothesis 2:5 states that there will be a significant relationship between, one, the difference of perceived and expected rewarding behavior of coaches, and two, the satisfaction with coaching leadership, as assessed by athletes. As illustrated in Table IV, the negative correlation of -.42 at the .05 level was significant. This purports to demonstrate that as the discrepancy scores between perceived and expected rewarding behavior of coaches increases, the satisfaction of athletes decreases with the leadership provided by coaches.

Discussion

No attempt was made through the design of the study to determine the causes of the difference among the expected and perceived behavior patterns of coaches as assessed by athletes. Since the differences in perceptions are significantly less than the expected training behaviors, democratic behaviors, social support behaviors and rewarding behaviors of coaches, one can make certain conjectures regarding the causes. These causes may be associated with the following: (1) conflicting role expectations of coaches among the various referent groups; (2) the

behavior patterns exhibited by coaches may be accounted for in the training, psychological make-up and personality needs of individual coaches; (3) the athletes' perceptions are a function of their own personality, past experiences, similarity between coaches and athletes and the athletes' awareness of their own performance; (4) assessments by coaches of their own behaviors revealed that coaches perceived themselves as displaying more training, democratic, social support and rewarding behaviors than were perceived by their athletes (see Appendix F); and (5) athletes with more experience, who competed at a higher level, tend to be more critical of the leadership of their coaches (Gibb, 1969).

The fact that athletes expected their coaches to exhibit, to the same relative degree, democratic and autocratic behaviors as shown by the means of 25.99 and 25.82 respectively, proved interesting. These expectations support the data by Tannenbaum and Schmidt, 1958; Vroom, 1968, Cratty, 1973; Langdale, 1976; Korman, 1973; Singer, 1972; Miklos, 1963; Lawless, 1972 and Fiedler, 1971, that subordinates (athletes) prefer flexibility in both styles of coaching. It was found, however, that athletes perceived their coaches as engaging in more autocratic behaviors than expected. There are several possible explanations for this discrepancy. First, coaches may perceive their role as requiring autocratic behavior which seems to be necessary in the decision-making process during games and practices. Second, coaches may have a high need to control others and have gravitated to a sport situation to satisfy their needs (Cratty, 1973). Third, leadership exhibited by the coaches in stressful situations may result in acceptance of unquestioned

control of team members. Fourth, coaches may utilize the authoritative style of behavior in their coaching to maintain security in an environment which is perceived as threatening (Penman, 1974). Fifth, coaches perceived themselves as being less autocratic than did athletes and, therefore, their views of themselves disagreed with how their athletes perceived them (see Appendix F). Sixth, as suggested by Scott, 1971; Ogilvie, 1971; Ogilvie and Tutko, 1966; Parrish, 1971 and Hendry, 1972, coaches may be concerned primarily with winning and, therefore, tend to be autocratic while diminishing the importance of behaviors regarding personal-emotional aspects between coaches and athletes. Seventh, there is a possibility that coaches misperceive the wants of their athletes. That is, the coach may believe that athletes prefer an autocratic coach.

In conjunction with the second hypothesis, this study has indicated a relationship between the behaviors of coaches and the satisfaction of athletes. It may be assumed that leadership can cause high satisfaction. But it is plausible that the cause-effect relationship goes the other way, that is, highly satisfied athletes may tend to be more generous in their ratings of the quality of leadership provided by coaches. Nevertheless, if good leadership is the cause of high satisfaction in athletes, then ultimately the coach can capitalize on knowledge of this causal relationship. As a result, this could become the basis on which to analyze certain problems of athletes in the leadership dimensions, namely, training, autocratic, democratic, social support, and rewarding behaviors. Through personal evaluations in terms of the above dimensions, coaches might improve the quality of their own leadership, and indirectly raise the level of satisfaction in their players.

With a higher level of satisfaction, the teams may then have a more pleasant atmosphere in which coaches and athletes could together strive to accomplish pre-established goals.

Of special significance were those coaches who were perceived to display lower levels of behaviors in the categories of training, democratic, social support, and reward than the athletes had expected. In these particular instances, as the discrepancy scores increased, the athletes were less satisfied with their coaches. Conversely, when athletes reported their coaches to be displaying more authoritative leadership behavior than expected, greater satisfaction was derived by the athletes. Thus, athletes prefer and are more satisfied with coaches who are friendly, warm and allow participation in decision-making. However, effective organizational patterns and authoritativeness are, nevertheless, desirable traits of coaches. If one accepts the importance of these characteristics, coaches would be well advised to perform their duties in a manner which is conducive to orderly practice with direct control while simultaneously maintaining considerate relationships with their athletes.

Work by other researchers (Korman, 1966; Bernard, 1971; House and Mitchell, 1974; and Yukl, 1971) has provided strong support for the idea that congruence of the subordinates' perceptions and expectations of leader behavior are related to the satisfaction that the subordinates experienced in the realm of leadership behaviors displayed by their superiors. The most puzzling result of this study was that even though athletes expected their coaches to manifest less autocratic behavior than perceived, it was found that as the discrepancy scores increased

the more satisfied the athletes were with the autocratic leadership of their coaches. It may be that the discrepancy between expectations and perceptions produces tension or dissonance with useful side effects. Many factors might contribute to this conclusion:

(1) According to Chelladurai and Saleh (1978), the tasks involved in playing basketball are ambiguous presumably because of the degree of complexity. This may result in an impression that the situations are unstructured thus creating an unfavorable situation. In addition, the leader-member relationship between coaches and athletes presents a possibility of unfavorableness since democratic, social support, and rewarding behaviors of coaches were less than what the athletes had expected. Even though the author had no indices for detecting the power of the coaches, two out of three factors proposed in Fiedler's Model were unfavorable; thus, the inference can be drawn that in situations of this nature a direct, authoritative style of coaching will be the most effective. If this is so, then it may be that the more effective coaches are, the greater satisfaction the athletes will derive from the autocratic leadership of coaches.

(2) As the athletes experienced various situations, they may have recognized that coaches who displayed authoritative coaching clarified tasks in relation to goal attainment,

thus, resulting in more satisfaction than the athletes originally had expected (House and Mitchell, 1974).

(3) Six out of the ten female basketball teams tested participated in the Canadian National Intercollegiate Basketball Tournament; thus, the author assumed the athletes were highly achievement-oriented. Therefore, in this particular type of situation a more authoritative style of coaching appears to be warranted than in situations in which athletes perceive the competition to be less competitive and less prestigious, as in a typical league game.

(4) Indications also pointed to the fact that athletes who desired more social support and rewards from their coaches did not necessarily want less authoritative control.

(5) It may be that regardless of the coaching style, the athletes participating at the national tournament were already satisfied with their attainment of a high level of competition, thus, the style of coaching was of little or no relevance at the time.

(6) The win/loss records of teams may possibly exert an influence on whether athletes derive satisfaction from their coaches. Therefore, even though the athletes were tested at least six hours before or after a game, the participants of the winning teams may have regarded the autocratic behaviors of coaches as being satisfactory

whereas under normal conditions, such as in practices, autocratic behaviors may have been regarded as less satisfying.

(7) Cratty (1973), and Hemphill and Coons (1957), believe that as a group increases its size, so does the demand for authoritative leadership. Therefore, the number of individuals on an athletic team could have an influence upon how satisfied the athletes are with the authoritative approach of their coach.

(8) The element of curiosity which may have been created by the discrepancy between athlete-perceived and athlete-expected autocratic behavior of coaches, could have a positive effect due to the resulting increase in the motivation of athletes (Smith, 1978).

Perhaps the most obvious implication arising from this study is the desirability of coaches and athletes to become aware of the complexity of perception and expectations concerning leadership behaviors. Once the expectations of coaches and athletes are made known and possible compromises made, it would seem reasonable to suggest that the leadership of the coaches would result in a more satisfied team.

The present study yielded a series of significant results. However, the question which immediately arises pertains to whether or not similar results would have been found, with equally high levels of significance, if the study had been carried out in other populations? In other words, were these findings merely the outcome of a local phenomenon? More

studies dealing with factors such as sport topologies, number of participants, age factors, skill and competitive levels and sex differences of coaches and athletes should be considered in order to arrive at some plausible answer to these questions.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The purpose of this study was twofold. First, the study was designed to determine whether there were significant differences in the way athletes perceived and expected coaches to behave in each of the following leadership dimensions; training behavior, autocratic behavior, democratic behavior, social support, and rewarding behavior. The second purpose of the study was to investigate the relationship of each of the leadership dimensions mentioned above, in the differences between the perceived and expected behavior of coaches and the satisfaction with the coaching leadership as assessed by athletes.

In order to carry out the purposes stated, two general hypotheses, with sub-hypotheses relating to each leadership dimension, were developed and tested. The general hypotheses of the study were:

(1) There will be a divergence to a significant degree between the perceived and expected leadership behavior of coaches as assessed by athletes.

(2) There will be a significant relationship between, one, the difference of perceived and expected behavior of coaches, and two, the satisfaction with the coaching leadership, as assessed by athletes.

To test hypothesis one, t-tests of significant means were employed in each of the sub-hypotheses relating to specific leadership dimensions. In the testing of hypothesis two, Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficients were utilized, once again, under each sub-hypothesis representing the five categories of leadership.

The study involved ten intercollegiate female basketball teams, wherein ninety-nine athletes and ten basketball coaches affiliated with the CIAU were tested using the Leadership in Sports Questionnaire.

Conclusions

The following conclusions are warranted on the basis of the analysis of the data:

(1) According to athletes the training behavior, democratic behavior, social support behavior and rewarding behavior of coaches, was perceived as being significantly less than expected.

(2) The athletes perceived their coaches as displaying significantly more autocratic behavior than expected.

(3) As the difference between perceived and expected training behavior, democratic behavior, social support behavior and rewarding behavior of coaches increased, there was a decrease in satisfaction that coaches provided to their athletes.

(4) The greater the difference between perceived and expected autocratic behavior of coaches, the more satisfied the athletes were with the leadership given by their coaches.

Recommendations for Further Study

(1) More studies of this nature should be done utilizing the Leadership in Sports Questionnaire to obtain validity and reliability of the instrument.

(2) A variety of sports should be analyzed to determine if there is a similariity in the way male and female athletes of different sports perceive and expect coaches to fulfill their leadership role.

(3) Studies are needed to investigate whether coaches perceive themselves differently than athletes.

(4) A further study should be undertaken to determine if coaches of various ages and experience are perceived differently by athletes.

(5) An investigation is needed to determine the expected leadership role of coaches of various reference groups.

(6) A study is needed to ascertain if a relationship exists between the personality of athletes and the perceptions and expectations the athletes have concerning behavior of coaches.

(7) Further investigation is needed to discover the overall satisfaction athletes have as members of teams in relation to the differences between perceived and expected leader behavior of coaches.

(8) A study should be undertaken to determine if athletes playing frequently during game situations view their coaches differently than those athletes who spend most of the game as spectators.

(9) A study should be done to investigate if athletes perceive and expect female coaches to behave differently than male coaches in their leadership roles.

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APPENDIX A

CORRESPONDENCE

LETTER SEEKING PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT THE STUDY
TO COACHES WITHIN THE WESTERN CONFERENCE

11111-87 Avenue
Edmonton, Alberta T6G OK9

January 20, 1978.

Dear:

I am doing my graduate work in the area of Sport Psychology at the University of Alberta under the assistance of Dr. Rick Alderman.

I am presently working on my Master Thesis on the topic EXPECTED AND PERCEIVED BEHAVIORS OF COACHES AS ASSESSED BY ATHLETES. Research in this area is very minimum and it is felt that the identification of patterns of expected and perceived behaviors of coaches as viewed by athletes should enable coaches to gain some insight into how they might work more efficiently with their team.

My purpose in writing you is to request not more than a half-hour of your time during the weekend of February ____ when you are competing at the University of _____ to complete a Leadership in Sports Questionnaire.

I can give you absolute assurance that your replies will be made known to no-one. As statistics, and only as statistics, they will give body to the patterns of the leadership behaviors of coaches.

If you approve, I will contact you by phone to set up a date, place and time which will be most convenient to you and your team.

I wish to thank you, in advance, for the half-hour of careful consideration you will give to the questionnaire. It is only through co-operation of people such as you that research into the area of sport psychology and coaching can be furthered.

I have enclosed a stamped, self-addressed envelope for returning the information required. May I have this by February 1st, please? Thank you again for your help.

Wishing you every success in the remainder of the season.

Yours truly,

Miss Paula Scholten.

LETTER SEEKING PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT THE STUDY
TO COACHES OUTSIDE THE WESTERN CONFERENCE

11111-87 Avenue,
Edmonton, Alberta, T6G OK9

January 20, 1978.

Dear:

I am doing my graduate work in the area of Sport Psychology at the University of Alberta under the assistance of Dr. Rick Alderman.

I am presently working on my Master thesis on the topic EXPECTED AND PERCEIVED BEHAVIORS OF COACHES AS ASSESSED BY ATHLETES. Research in this area is very minimum and it is felt that the identification of the patterns of expected and perceived behaviors of coaches as viewed by athletes, should enable coaches to gain some insight into how they might work more efficiently with their team.

My purpose in writing you is to request not more than a half-hour of your time during the Canadian Intercollegiate Athletic Union Basketball Championships, assuming of course, that your team will be represented to be held in Calgary during March 8-9-10th to complete a Leadership in Sports Questionnaire.

I can give you absolute assurance that your replies will be made known to no-one. As statistics, and only as statistics, they will give body to the patterns of leadership behavior of coaches.

I realize that the schedule of this tournament will not be known until approximately one week prior to the competition, however, if you approve, I will contact you by phone to set up a date, place and time which will be most convenient for you and your team.

I wish to thank you, in advance, for the half-hour of careful consideration you will give to the questionnaire. It is only through cooperation of people such as you that research into the area of sport psychology and coaching can be furthered.

I have enclosed a stamped, self-addressed envelope for returning the information required. May I have this by February 15th, please? Thank you again for your help.

Wishing you every success in the remainder of the season.

Yours truly,

Miss Paula Scholten

REPLY LETTERS FROM COACHES

COACHES NAME: _____

Name of University: _____

YES _____ my team will be able to fill out the questionnaire.

NO _____ my team will not be able to fill out the questionnaire.

Home Phone Number: _____ (please include area code)

University Phone Number: _____

When would be a good time to contact you?

DAY _____

DATE _____

TIME _____

PHONE _____

Additional Comments:

THANK-YOU LETTERS TO COACHES

11111-87 Avenue,
Edmonton, Alberta, T6G OK9

March 15, 1978.

Dear:

I would like to take this opportunity to thank you and your team for participating in my data collection for my thesis.

I realize that testing during any period of time is an inconvenience and as a token of appreciation, I will send you a summary of my conclusions once my thesis is completed.

Thanks again.

Yours truly,

Miss Paula Scholten

APPENDIX B

LEADERSHIP IN SPORTS QUESTIONNAIRE

LEADERSHIP IN SPORTS

This study is an attempt to investigate the leader behavior preferred and perceived by athletes.

There are no right or wrong answers. There is no time limit, but try not to ponder too long over any item. Your spontaneous and honest response is important for the success of the study. Please respond to all items by placing the appropriate mark on the questionnaire itself. Please do not discuss the items with others. All responses will be kept in the strictest confidence.

SECTION I

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Name: (not required by the author) Age: _____

University: _____

Sport: _____

Number of years you have participated in this sport: _____

Number of years you have played in interuniversity competitions in this sport: _____

Number of years you have been a member of the present team: _____

Are you (or have you been) a member of a varsity team in any other sport? Yes No

If yes, what sport? _____

SECTION II

Each of the following statements describes a specific behavior that a coach may exhibit. For each statement there are five alternatives: 1. ALWAYS; 2. OFTEN (about 75% of the time): 3. OCCASIONALLY (50% of the time); 4. SELDOM (about 25% of the time); 5. NEVER. Please indicate your preference by placing an "X" in the appropriate space. Answer all items even if you are unsure of any. Please note that this is not an evaluation of your present coach or any other coach. It is your own personal preference that is required.

I prefer the coach to	ALWAYS	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	SELDOM	NEVER
1. See to it that every athlete is working to his capacity.	—	—	—	—	—
2. Insist that everything be done his way.	—	—	—	—	—
3. Help the athletes with their personal problems.	—	—	—	—	—
4. Ask for the opinion of the athletes on strategies for specific competitions.	—	—	—	—	—
5. Stress orderly methods of training.	—	—	—	—	—
6. Compliment an athlete for his performance in front of others.	—	—	—	—	—
7. Work relatively independent of the athletes.	—	—	—	—	—
8. Get group approval on important matters before going ahead.	—	—	—	—	—
9. Help members of the group settle their conflicts.	—	—	—	—	—
10. Pay special attention to correcting athletes' mistakes.	—	—	—	—	—

I prefer the coach to	ALWAYS	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	SELDOM	NEVER
11. Not explain his actions.	—	—	—	—	—
12. Let his athletes share in decision makings.	—	—	—	—	—
13. Look out for the personal welfare of the athletes.	—	—	—	—	—
14. Emphasize uniform methods of training.	—	—	—	—	—
15. Act on his own.	—	—	—	—	—
16. Tell an athlete when he does a particularly good job.	—	—	—	—	—
17. Encourage athletes to make suggestions for ways of conducting practices.	—	—	—	—	—
18. Provide opportunities for members to communicate with each other.	—	—	—	—	—
19. Make sure that his part in the team is understood by all the athletes.	—	—	—	—	—
20. Refuse to compromise a point.	—	—	—	—	—
21. Let the group set its own goals.	—	—	—	—	—
22. Figure ahead on what should be done.	—	—	—	—	—
23. See that an athlete is rewarded for a good performance.	—	—	—	—	—
24. Keep to himself.	—	—	—	—	—
25. Let the athletes try their own way even if they make mistakes.	—	—	—	—	—
26. Expect every athlete to carry out his assignment to the last detail.	—	—	—	—	—
27. Make all decisions regarding practice; the time, length and frequency.	—	—	—	—	—
28. See that the athletes have the equipment they need to work with.	—	—	—	—	—

I prefer the coach to	ALWAYS	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	SELDOM	NEVER
29. Ask for the opinion of athletes on important coaching matters.	—	—	—	—	—
30. Express appreciation when an athlete performs well.	—	—	—	—	—
31. Speak in a manner not to be questioned.	—	—	—	—	—
32. Let athletes work at their own speed.	—	—	—	—	—
33. See to it that the efforts are coordinated.	—	—	—	—	—
34. Needle the athletes for greater effort.	—	—	—	—	—
35. Let the athletes decide on the plays to be used in a game.	—	—	—	—	—
36. Give credit when credit is due.	—	—	—	—	—
37. Be aware of the conflicts when they occur in the team.	—	—	—	—	—

SECTION III

Each of the following statements describes a specific behavior that a coach may exhibit. For each statement there are five alternatives: 1. ALWAYS: 2. OFTEN (about 75% of the time); 3. OCCASIONALLY (50% of the time); 4. SELDOM (about 25% of the time); 5. NEVER. Please indicate your coach's actual behavior by placing an "X" in the appropriate space. Answer all items even if you are unsure of any. Please note that you are rating your present coach.

My coach	ALWAYS	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	SELDOM	NEVER
1. Sees to it that every athlete is working to his capacity.	—	—	—	—	—
2. Insists that everything be done his way.	—	—	—	—	—
3. Helps the athletes with their personal problems.	—	—	—	—	—
4. Asks for the opinion of the athletes on strategies for specific competitions.	—	—	—	—	—
5. Stresses orderly methods of training.	—	—	—	—	—
6. Compliments an athlete for his performance in front of others.	—	—	—	—	—
7. Works relatively independent of the athletes.	—	—	—	—	—
8. Gets group approval on important matters before going ahead.	—	—	—	—	—
9. Helps members of the group settle their conflicts.	—	—	—	—	—
10. Pays special attention to correcting athletes' mistakes.	—	—	—	—	—
11. Does not explain his actions.	—	—	—	—	—
12. Lets his athletes share in decision makings.	—	—	—	—	—
13. Looks out for the personal welfare of the athletes.	—	—	—	—	—
14. Emphasizes uniform methods of training.	—	—	—	—	—
15. Acts on his own.	—	—	—	—	—
16. Tells an athlete when he does a particularly good job.	—	—	—	—	—
17. Encourage athletes to make suggestions for ways of conducting practices.	—	—	—	—	—

My coach	ALWAYS	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	SELDOM	NEVER
18. Provides opportunities for members to communicate with each other.	—	—	—	—	—
19. Makes sure that his part in the team is understood by all the athletes.	—	—	—	—	—
20. Refuses to compromise a point.	—	—	—	—	—
21. Lets the group set its own goals.	—	—	—	—	—
22. Figures ahead on what should be done.	—	—	—	—	—
23. Sees that an athlete is rewarded for a good performance.	—	—	—	—	—
24. Keeps to himself.	—	—	—	—	—
25. Lets the athletes try their own way even if they make mistakes.	—	—	—	—	—
26. Expects every athlete to carry out his assignment to the last detail.	—	—	—	—	—
27. Makes all decisions regarding practice; the time, length, and frequency.	—	—	—	—	—
28. Sees that the athletes have the equipment they need to work with.	—	—	—	—	—
29. Asks for the opinions of athletes on important coaching matters.	—	—	—	—	—
30. Expresses appreciation when an athlete performs well.	—	—	—	—	—
31. Speaks in a manner not to be questioned.	—	—	—	—	—
32. Lets athletes work at their own speed.	—	—	—	—	—
33. Sees to it that the efforts are coordinated.	—	—	—	—	—
34. Needles the athletes for greater effort.	—	—	—	—	—
35. Lets the athletes decide on the plays to be used in a game.	—	—	—	—	—

My coach	ALWAYS	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	SELDOM	NEVER
36. Gives credit when credit is due.	—	—	—	—	—
37. Is aware of the conflicts when they occur in the team.	—	—	—	—	—

SECTION IV

How satisfied are you with the leadership provided by your coach?

1. very dissatisfied;
2. moderately dissatisfied;
3. slightly dissatisfied;
4. neutral;
5. slightly satisfied;
6. moderately satisfied;
7. very satisfied.

APPENDIX C

STATEMENTS RELATING TO

EACH LEADERSHIP DIMENSION

TRAINING BEHAVIOR

I prefer the coach to ....

1. See to it that every athlete is working to his capacity.
2. Stress orderly methods of training.
3. Pay special attention to correcting athletes' mistakes.
4. Emphasize uniform methods of training.
5. Make sure that his part in the team is understood by all the athletes.
6. Figure ahead on what should be done.
7. Expect every athlete to carry out his assignment to the last detail.
8. See that the athletes have the equipment they need to work with.
9. See to it that the efforts are coordinated.
10. Be aware of the conflicts when they occur in the team.

My coach ....

1. Sees to it that every athlete is working to his capacity.
2. Stresses orderly methods of training.
3. Pays special attention to correcting athletes' mistakes.
4. Emphasizes uniform methods of training.
5. Makes sure that his part in the team is understood by all the athletes.
6. Figures ahead on what should be done.
7. Expects every athlete to carry out his assignment to the last detail.
8. Sees that the athletes have the equipment they need to work with.
9. Sees to it that the efforts are coordinated.
10. Is aware of the conflicts when they occur in the team.

AUTOCRATIC BEHAVIOR

I prefer the coach to ....

1. Insist that everything be done his way.
2. Work relatively independent of the athletes.
3. Not explain his actions.
4. Act on his own.
5. Refuse to compromise a point.
6. Keep to himself.
7. Make all decisions regarding practice; the time, the length, and frequency.
8. Speak in a manner not to be questioned.
9. Needle the athletes for greater effort.

My coach ....

1. Insists that everything be done his way.
2. Works relatively independent of the athletes.
3. Does not explain his actions.
4. Acts on his own.
5. Refuses to compromise a point.
6. Keeps to himself.
7. Makes all decisions regarding practice; the time, the length, and frequency.
8. Speaks in a manner not to be questioned.
9. Needles the athletes for greater effort.

DEMOCRATIC BEHAVIOR

I prefer the coach to ....

1. Ask for the opinion of the athletes on strategies for specific competitions.
2. Get group approval on important matters before going ahead.
3. Let his athletes share in decision making.
4. Encourage athletes to make suggestions for ways of conducting practices.
5. Let the group set its own goals.
6. Let the athletes try their own way even if they make mistakes.
7. Ask for the opinion of athletes on important coaching matters.
8. Let athletes work at their own speed.
9. Let the athletes decide on the plays to be used in a game.

My coach ....

1. Asks for the opinion of the athletes on strategies for specific competitions.
2. Gets group approval on important matters before going ahead.
3. Lets his athletes share in decision making.
4. Encourages athletes to make suggestions for ways of conducting practices.
5. Lets the group set its own goals.
6. Lets the athletes try their own way even if they make mistakes.
7. Asks for the opinions of athletes on important coaching matters.
8. Lets athletes work at their own speed.
9. Lets the athletes decide on the plays to be used in a game.

SOCIAL SUPPORT BEHAVIOR

I prefer the coach to ....

1. Help the athletes with their personal problems.
2. Help members of the group settle their conflicts.
3. Look out for the personal welfare of the athletes.
4. Provide opportunities for members to communicate with each other.

My coach ....

1. Helps the athletes with their personal problems.
2. Helps members of the group settle their conflicts.
3. Looks out for the personal welfare of the athletes.
4. Provides opportunities for members to communicate with each other.

REWARDING BEHAVIOR

I prefer the coach to ....

1. Compliment an athlete for his performance in front of others.
2. Tell an athlete when he does a particularly good job.
3. See that an athlete is rewarded for a good performance.
4. Express appreciation when an athlete performs well.
5. Give credit when credit is due.

My coach ....

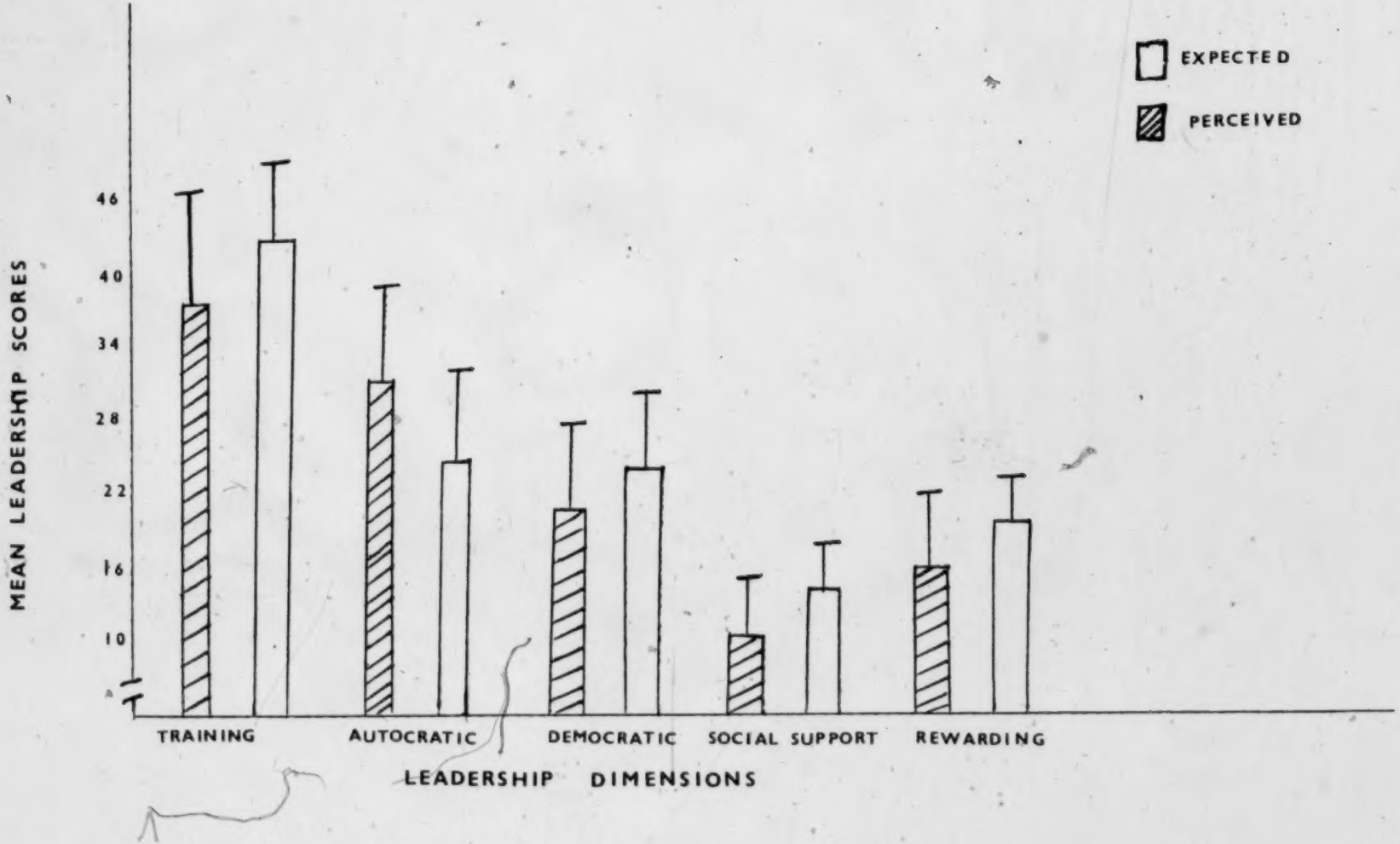
1. Compliments an athlete for his performance in front of others.
2. Tells an athlete when he does a particularly good job.
3. Sees that an athlete is rewarded for a good performance.
4. Expresses appreciation when an athlete performs well.
5. Gives credit when credit is due.

APPENDIX D

MEAN PERCEIVED AND EXPECTED LEADERSHIP SCORES OF COACHES AS VIEWED BY ATHLETES

FIGURE 5

MEAN PERCEIVED AND EXPECTED LEADERSHIP SCORES OF COACHES AS VIEWED BY ATHLETES



APPENDIX E

RAW DATA

TABLE V

MEAN SCORES OF INDIVIDUAL TEAMS ON PERCEIVED AND EXPECTED TRAINING BEHAVIORS OF COACHES

Teams	Leadership Dimension	Perceived Means	Expected Means	Discrepancy Scores	Total Maximum Score
A	Training	42.08	43	-.920	50
B		29.3	42.8	-13.5	
C		40.37	39.37	1.0	
D		38.75	45.12	-6.37	
E		36.87	40.62	-3.75	
F		33.36	46.36	-13.0	
G		38.54	43.81	-5.27	
H		33.66	42	-8.33	
I		38.66	42.83	-4.16	
J		37.42	42.85	-5.42	
Total		36.83	42.97	-6.31	

TABLE VI

MEAN SCORES OF INDIVIDUAL TEAMS ON PERCEIVED AND EXPECTED AUTOCRATIC BEHAVIORS OF COACHES

Teams	Leadership Dimension	Perceived Means	Expected Means	Discrepancy Scores	Total Maximum Scores
A	Autocratic	33.41	25.25	8.16	45
B		36.1	27.7	8.4	
C		32.25	27.25	5.0	
D		31.37	25.37	6.0	
E		31.62	23.37	8.25	
F		27.45	25.09	2.36	
G		30.54	26.18	4.36	
H		35.08	26.08	9.00	
I		32.91	24.33	8.57	
J		33.42	28	5.42	
Total		32.44	25.68	6.39	

TABLE VII

MEAN SCORES OF INDIVIDUAL TEAMS ON PERCEIVED AND EXPECTED DEMOCRATIC BEHAVIORS OF COACHES

Teams	Leadership Dimension	Perceived Mean	Expected Mean	Discrepancy Scores	Total Maximum Score
A	Democratic	19.75	25.5	-5.75	45
B		21.8	27.4	-5.6	
C		22.25	26.12	-3.87	
D		23.12	26.37	-3.25	
E		23.87	25.12	-1.25	
F		24.18	24.63	-0.45	
G		19.81	27.27	-7.45	
H		21	24.5	-3.5	
I		21.33	26.91	-5.58	
J		27.14	25.14	2.0	
Total		22.13	25.90	-3.73	

TABLE VIII

MEAN SCORES OF INDIVIDUAL TEAMS ON PERCEIVED AND EXPECTED SOCIAL SUPPORT BEHAVIORS OF COACHES

Teams	Leadership Dimension	Perceived Means	Expected Means	Discrepancy Scores	Total Maximum Scores
A	Social Support	12.66	14.83	-2.16	20
B		10.1	13.2	-3.1	
C		12.37	15.25	-2.87	
D		12.75	13.75	-1.00	
E		12.25	12.87	- .62	
F		10.81	14.63	-3.81	
G		12.36	15	-2.63	
H		11.92	14.46	-2.53	
I		10.33	13.66	-3.33	
J		14.42	15.57	-1.14	
Total		11.98	14.46	-3.76	

TABLE IX

MEAN SCORES OF INDIVIDUAL TEAMS ON PERCEIVED AND EXPECTED REWARDING BEHAVIORS OF COACHES

Team	Leadership Dimension	Perceived Means	Expected Means	Discrepancy Scores	Total Maximum Score
A	Rewarding	22.33	23.66	-1.33	25
B		16.7	21	-3.3	
C		17.12	21.12	-4.0	
D		18.87	22.5	-3.62	
E		13.87	19.25	-5.37	
F		15.45	21.45	-6.0	
G		17.72	21.18	-3.45	
H		16.25	20.91	-4.66	
I		17.16	20.41	-3.25	
J		19.57	21.28	-1.71	
Total		17.51	21.32	-2.39	

TABLE X

MEAN OF INDIVIDUAL TEAMS ON THEIR SATISFACTION OF COACHES

Teams	Satisfaction Scores *
A	2.08
B	5.8
C	1.87
D	2.75
E	2.5
F	4.27
G	2.63
H	3
I	3.75
J	1.5
Total Mean	2.54

* Minimum 7 Maximum 1

APPENDIX F

T-TEST FOR PERCEIVED BEHAVIORS OF COACHES AS ASSESSED BY THEMSELVES AND THEIR ATHLETES

TABLE XI

T-TEST FOR PERCEIVED BEHAVIORS OF COACHES AS ASSESSED BY THEMSELVES AND THEIR ATHLETES

Leadership Dimension	Number of Cases	Athletes Coaches	Means	Mean Differences	Standard Deviations	T Values	Degrees of Freedom	2-Tail Probability
Training	99 10	Ath. C.	37.12 42.70	-5.57	5.75 3.77	-2.99*	107	.003
Autocratic	99 10	Ath. C.	32.22 29.20	3.02	4.41 3.39	+2.06*	107	.042
Democratic	99 10	Ath. C.	22.16 24.10	-1.93	4.55 3.84	-1.30*	107	.197
Social Support	99 10	Ath. C.	11.84 14.60	-2.75	2.77 1.57	-3.07*	107	.017
Rewarding	99 10	Ath. C.	17.54 20.70	-3.15	4.06 1.49	-2.43*	107	.003

* $p < .05$